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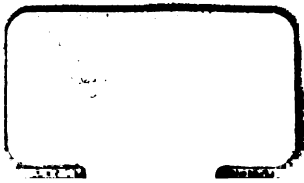
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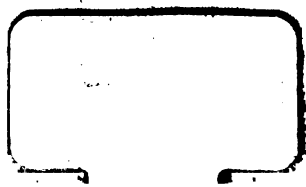
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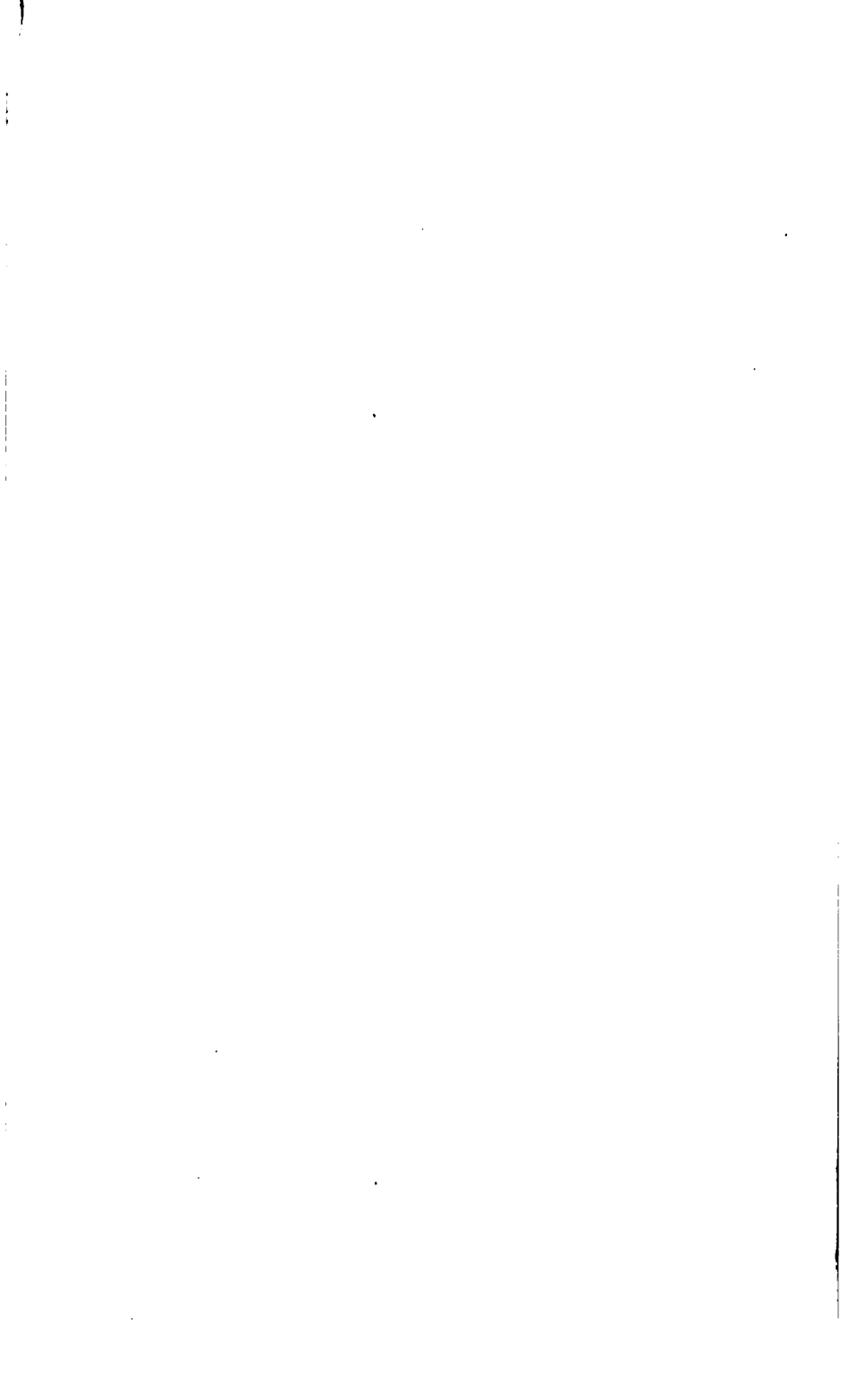
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# GEOGRAPHICAL DELINEATIONS,

OR

## A COMPENDIOUS VIEW

OF

## THE NATURAL AND POLITICAL STATE

OF

## ALL PARTS OF THE GLOBE.

*BY J. AIKIN, M. D.*

Fertile of corn the glebe, of oil and wine ;  
With herds the pastures throng'd, with flocks the hills ;  
Huge cities and high tower'd, that well might seem  
The seats of mightiest monarchs ; and so large  
The prospect was, that here and there was room  
For barren desert, fountainless and dry. .

MILTON.

CORRECTED AND ENLARGED.

PHILADELPHIA,

PRINTED FOR F. NICHOLS,

BY KIMBER, CONRAD, & CO. NO. 93, MARKET STREET.

1807.

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## PREFACE.

THE precise object aimed at in this work is to afford, in a moderate compass, and under an agreeable form, such a view of every thing most important relative to the natural and political state of the world which we inhabit; as may dwell upon the mind in vivid colours, and durably impress it with just and instructive notions.

In the prosecution of this design I have been guided by the two leading considerations respecting each country, what nature has made it, and what man has made it. Of these the first has taken the precedence, because it points to circumstances which can never fail to exert a certain effect; which survive all temporary changes, and stamp an indelible character. The second, however, is frequently of greater interest, and inculcates lessons of more practical importance; it has, therefore, in the more civilized states, occupied the largest share of the description. Both together have as much as possible been brought to conspire in forming the characteristic strokes of the sketch.

Since the first requisite in describing a country is to identify it, the boundaries of each have been traced with some minuteness; and it has especially been considered as an object of consequence to show how far the great portions or masses into which nature seems to have divided the land upon this globe, coincide with the territorial distributions made by human policy. Those grand features of country, mountains and rivers, have likewise been laid down with a degree of precision correspondent to their geographical importance. These

## PREFACE.

details may, perhaps, to a cursory reader appear dry and tedious; but it is always supposed by the writer that they are illustrated by a good map; for, without such a kind of pictured representation, words must be very inadequate to convey the images required. Travelling in this manner with the eye and understanding conjointly, is an agreeable occupation, as well as the only sure method of fixing ideas of locality in the memory.

When the accompaniment of maps is confessed to be so essential to the proper use of this work, it might, perhaps, have been expected that they would have been given with it; but neither the size nor the price would have admitted them, except upon so small a scale as not to answer the purpose; and it may be presumed, that few houses in which attention is paid to geographical instruction, are unprovided with a modern atlas, or a terrestrial globe.

I have not been very solicitous with respect to the order in which the different countries have been described. Arrangement is of no great consequence, except where it is founded upon a system essentially connected with the subject; but there is no systematic reason why one part of the world should be offered to the reader's consideration before another. A commencement has been made with Europe, chiefly because a European naturally regards his own quarter of the globe as the centre of all relations and comparisons, political and moral; and, indeed, his interest over the rest seems to justify this precedence in rank. The other quarters have been taken in their usual order; and the particular divisions of each have followed one another according to contiguity, with a general course of progress from north to south. Particular reasons have produced occasional deviations from this course; but it is hoped that the transitions will commonly appear easy and natural.

The main matter of this work is necessarily compiled from other books; and it would be easy to give a long list of works

## PREFACE.

on geography, and voyages and travels; that have been consulted. But this would be useless ostentation; and I only request that credit may be given me for having used due diligence and judgment in the collection of materials, and for having seriously attempted to divest myself of all partialities and prejudices which might give a false colouring to my delineations. The style I have always endeavoured to make my own; and I have freely indulged a spirit of reflection whenever I thought it could be employed to a good purpose.

No particular class or age of readers has been in my view in this performance. If it prove answerable to my intentions, young persons of both sexes, at the period of finishing their education, may peruse it with advantage, as a summary of what is most important to be remembered relative to the topics treated of; and it may afford compendious information and matter for reflection to those of maturer years, who are destitute of time and opportunity for copious research.

## ADVERTISEMENT.

THE writings of Dr. Aikin are so highly esteemed, both in Europe and America, that it would be superfluous to praise them, or to recommend them to the notice of the public. Though we possess many geographical works, and some of merit, yet it is presumed that the publication of Aikin's Geographical Delineations in this country needs no apology. It is sufficient to inform the reader, that many competent judges have examined the work, and pronounce it neat, perspicuous, and useful; well adapted to the instruction of youth, and the information of persons of mature age. Perhaps it is no exaggerated praise of this work to assert, that no geographical book of equal extent is, in all respects, so fit for the purposes of instruction and general reading.

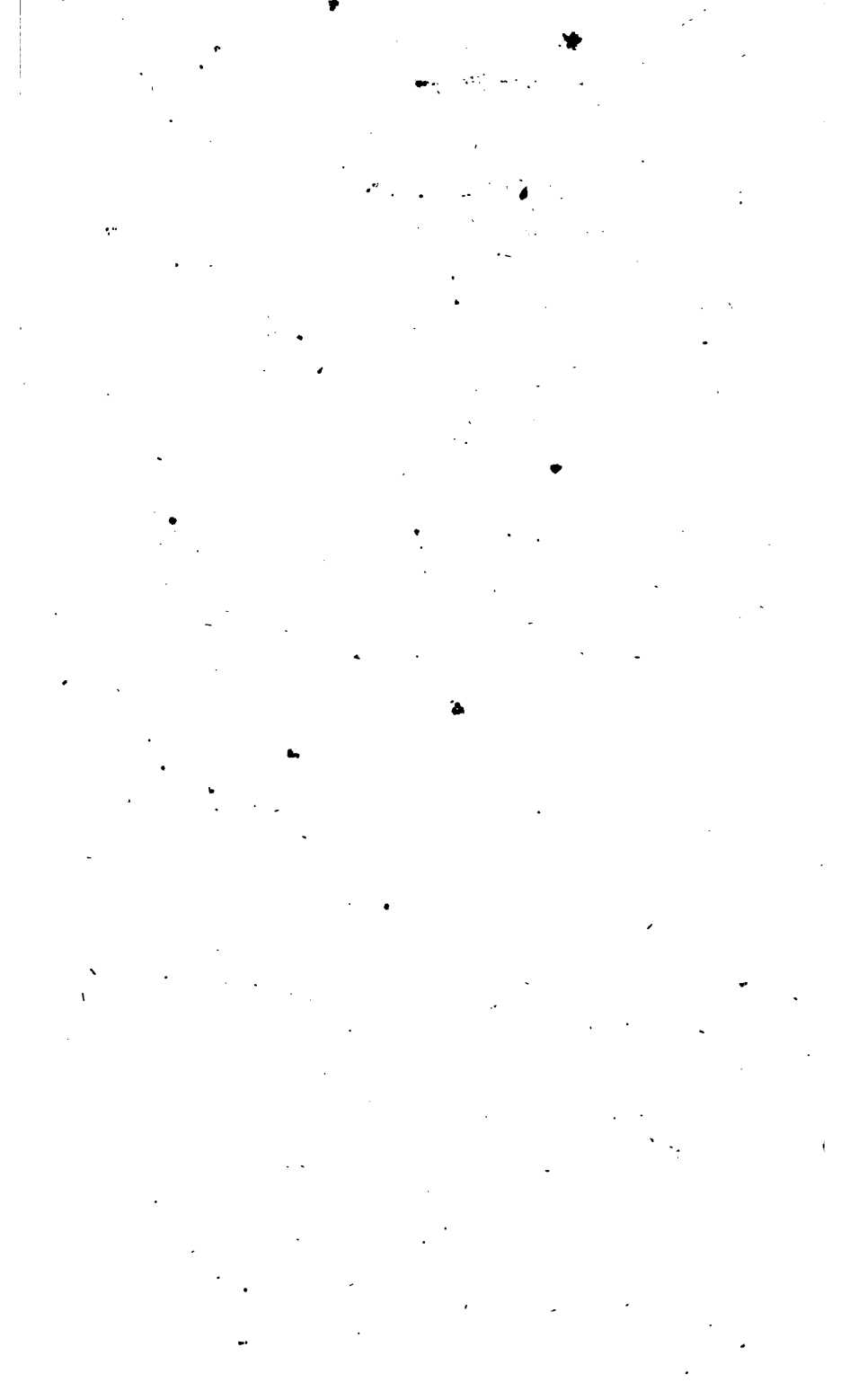
Some improvements have been made in the American edition, which render it superior to the English. The alterations and improvements that deserve particular notice occur in the articles Britain and United States, of which the former has been reduced by the omission of a few local descriptions of no importance to foreigners, and the latter corrected and enlarged by the addition of some things of interest and value. The alterations and additions are so numerous in the article United States, that it was most convenient, and indeed necessary, to incorporate them with the text; consequently they could not be distinguished by any of the usual marks without injuring the appearance of the typography. The introduction and the appendix are entirely new, and the latter may be considered as a continuation of the former, but is not necessarily connected with it.

F. N.

*January, 1807.*

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# INTRODUCTION.

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## *Definitions respecting the Circle and Sphere.*

1. A circle is a plain figure bounded by a curved line, called the circumference, which is every where equally distant from a point within the figure called the centre.

2. A diameter of a circle is a straight line drawn through the centre and terminated both ways by the circumference.

3. An arc of a circle is any part of the circumference.

4. The circumference of every circle is supposed to be divided into 360 equal parts, called degrees, and each degree into 60 equal parts, called minutes, and each minute into 60 equal parts, called seconds.

Degrees, minutes, and seconds are usually marked thus,  $21^{\circ} 5' 6''$ ; which are read 21 degrees 5 minutes 6 seconds.

5. The plane of a circle is the space contained within the circumference.

6. A circle revolving round any diameter, as an axis of motion, may be conceived to generate a solid figure, which is called a sphere or globe.

7. The centre of the generating circle is the centre of the sphere; and any straight line passing through the centre of the sphere and terminated both ways by the surface, is called a diameter.

8. Any circle, the plane of which passes through the centre of the sphere, divides the sphere into two equal parts, and is called a great circle.

9. Any circle, the plane of which does not pass through the centre of the sphere, divides the sphere into two unequal parts, and is called a small circle.

10. A diameter of a sphere perpendicular to the plane of any great circle is called the axis of that circle; and the extremities of the diameter are called its poles.

### *Geographical Definitions and Observations.*

Geography is a description of the earth, and may be divided into two parts, *physical* and *local*.

Physical geography explains the nature and properties of the earth, as its figure, magnitude, motions, celestial appearances, temperature, natural productions, &c.

Local geography describes the different countries of the earth, as their boundaries, figure, magnitude, climate, soil, productions, inhabitants, arts, customs, languages, &c.

Local geography is so easy, and so agreeable to most young persons, that it may be taught at school to children of ten years of age, or to those of a greater age as a relaxation from severer studies. It is merely an object of memory, and therefore the acquisition of geographical knowledge depends chiefly on the care and attention of the student.

Geography is necessary to the soldier, the mariner, the merchant, the traveller, and to every man who desires to know the planet which he inhabits. It is so generally useful that no person of a common education can be ignorant of it without the suspicion of negligence and want of curiosity.

A continent is a great extent of land containing many countries.

An island is a piece of land entirely surrounded by water, as Britain.

An ocean is a great extent of water which is not separated by land, as the Atlantic ocean.

A sea is a less extent of water, more than half of which is surrounded by land, as the Baltic sea.

A promontory is a continuity of land which stretches into a sea or ocean, as the southern extremity of Africa.



A cape is the extremity of a promontory, as the cape of Good Hope.

A peninsula is a portion of land nearly surrounded by water, as Arabia.

An isthmus is a narrow piece of land which connects a peninsula with the main land, as the isthmus of Suez, the isthmus of Darien.

A lake is a portion of water surrounded by land, as lake Ontario.

A gulf or bay is a part of an ocean or a sea, which runs into the land, as the gulf of Mexico, the bay of Bengal.

A strait is a narrow part of the sea which runs between two countries and connects two seas or oceans, as the straits of Gibraltar, the straits of Magellan.\*

The axis of the earth is an imaginary line passing through the centre, and meeting the surface in two opposite points.

The poles of the earth are the two extremities of its axis.

That extremity of the earth's axis which is directed toward the north point of the heavens is called the north pole, and that which is directed toward the south point is called the south pole. The poles are diametrically opposite to each other, and always preserve the same relative situation.

Imagine a circle to be described round the globe, exactly in the middle between the poles. This circle is called the equator. Therefore the terrestrial equator is a great circle of the earth, which divides it into two equal parts, called the northern and southern hemispheres, and is every where equidistant from the poles.

The ecliptic is a great circle which crosses the equator obliquely in two opposite points, which are called the vernal and

\* The following definitions and observations will not be intelligible to the learner unless he have a terrestrial globe before him. Indeed a globe seems indispensable to a student of geography, for without its assistance he cannot easily obtain correct notions of the figure, motion, and position of the earth, and of the relative situations of the different continents, islands, and countries into which the surface of the earth is naturally and artificially divided.

The terrestrial and celestial globes improved by Bardin, and made by W. and S. Jones, London, are the best, and are sold separately for half the price of the pair.

autumnal equinoxes. The sun seems to pass over the ecliptic in the space of a year.

The sensible horizon is that circle in the heavens which bounds the view of the spectator. Thus, at sea, or on an extensive plain, the sky and the earth appear to meet in a circle, which is called the horizon.

A meridian is a great circle which intersects the equator at right angles, passes through the poles, and divides the globe into two equal parts.

Any place which lies east or west of another may have a meridian drawn through it; consequently there may be as many different meridians as places situated east or west of one another. The sun at noon is over the meridian of any particular place on the earth's surface.

Parallels of latitude are small circles of the globe which are parallel to the equator.

Tropics are two small circles which are parallel to the equator, and distant from it  $23^{\circ} 28'$ . The circle on the north side of the equator is called the tropic of cancer, and the circle on the south side, the tropic of capricorn.

Polar circles are two small circles which are parallel to the equator, and distant from the poles  $23^{\circ} 28'$ . The circle about the north pole is called the arctic circle, and the circle about the south pole the antarctic circle.

The space between the two tropics is called the torrid zone; the two spaces between the tropics and the polar circles are called the temperate zones; and the two spaces between the polar circles and the poles are called the frigid zones.\*

A map is a representation of the earth, or of any part of the earth upon a plane surface. The top of a map represents the north, the bottom the south, the right side the east, and the left side the west. The figures on the top and bottom of a map denote longitude, and the figures on the sides denote latitude,

\* These divisions of the earth are incorrect and useless, and ought to be banished from geography.

A terrestrial globe is a representation of the earth on a spherical surface, and is useful in showing the situations of the different countries and parts of the earth.

*Latitude and Longitude.*

The equator, meridians, and parallels of latitude, are the principal circles which are described on globes and maps; and if they be well understood the learner will easily comprehend what follows respecting the latitude and longitude of a place.

The equator, for instance, is represented as the boundary which separates the northern from the southern hemisphere; and the latitude of a place is its distance from the equator. If a place lie in the northern hemisphere, it is said to have north latitude; and if it lie in the southern hemisphere it is said to have south latitude. Hence the latitude of any place is greater or less according to its distance from the equator.

To estimate the distance of a place from the equator, we conceive a meridian to be drawn through the place proposed; and by reckoning how many degrees and minutes of the meridian are contained between the place and the equator, we can judge of the situation of the place with respect to its latitude. Thus, if a place lie exactly in the middle between the equator and either of the poles, it will have  $45^{\circ}$  of latitude, north or south, according to the hemisphere in which it lies. At the equator the latitude is nothing, and increases gradually as we advance toward either of the poles, where it is  $90^{\circ}$ , or the greatest possible.

It is evident that many places may have the same latitude; for if a circle be supposed to be drawn through any point of the meridian, parallel to the equator, all places situated on that parallel will be equally distant from the equator, and consequently will have the same latitude. Hence it appears that the latitude of a place does not determine its exact situation. We know in what parallel the place lies, and what is its distance from the equator; but this knowledge is not sufficient to fix the precise position of the place in that parallel, and to enable us to find it on a globe or map. To ascertain the exact situation of a place, we must know its distance from a certain meridian,

as well as its distance from the equator. As none of the meridians is, in its own nature, distinguishable from the rest, it will be necessary to take some one in particular, and to refer all our computations to it. Suppose, for example, that we take any remarkable place upon the earth, and consider the meridian which passes through it as the principal or first meridian. By observing the points where this meridian cuts the equator, the distance of any place may be properly reckoned from it in degrees and minutes of the equator.

Geographers of different countries do not assume the same meridian as the first. This disagreement is not of much consequence, because, wherever the first meridian be fixed, all other meridians may easily be reduced to it.

Every meridian intersects the equator in two opposite points at the distance of  $180^\circ$  each way. As the equator is the boundary which separates the northern hemisphere from the southern, so the first meridian may be considered as the boundary which separates the eastern hemisphere from the western. As the latitude of any place is its meridional distance from the equator, so the longitude of any place is its equatorial distance from the first meridian. If a place be situated in the eastern hemisphere, it is said to have east longitude; if in the western hemisphere, it is said to have west longitude. The longitude of a place is greater or less according to its distance from the first meridian; but the greatest longitude cannot exceed  $180^\circ$ .

To estimate the distance of a place from the first meridian, we conceive a meridian to be drawn through the place proposed; then by reckoning how many degrees of the equator are contained between this and the first meridian, we can judge of the situation of the place with respect to its longitude.

All places situated on the first meridian have no longitude. Many places may have the same longitude; for if a meridian be supposed to be drawn through any point on the globe, all places on that meridian, when referred to the equator, will be equally distant from the first meridian, and therefore will have the same longitude. Hence it appears that the longitude only of a place will not determine its exact situation. We must find both the meridian and the parallel of latitude of the place pro-

posed ; and the point of intersection of these two circles will be the true situation of the place.

Hence we can easily find upon a map or globe the situation of any place of which the latitude and longitude are known ; and, on the contrary, we can find the latitude and longitude of any place proposed.

The length of a degree of latitude is nearly the same at all distances from the equator ; but the length of a degree of longitude continually decreases from the equator to the poles, where it is nothing.

When the sun in its apparent daily course round the earth, comes over any particular meridian, it is then 12 o'clock, or noon, at all places which lie on that meridian ; but at all other places it is either before or after noon, according as they are situated west or east of that meridian. The sun, moving apparently from east to west, must pass over any meridian which lies east of another before it comes to the more westerly meridian ; consequently when it is noon to the inhabitants of the former meridian, it will be sometime afternoon to the inhabitants of the latter ; and, on the contrary, when it is noon at those places which are situated on the latter meridian, it will be some time after noon at all places which are situated on the former meridian.

The sun appears to move uniformly round the earth, and to describe a circle in 24 hours ; therefore it describes an arc of  $15^{\circ}$  in one hour. For if  $360^{\circ}$  be divided by 24, the quotient will be  $15^{\circ}$ . Therefore when it is noon at London, and at all other places on the same meridian, it will be one o'clock in the afternoon at all places situated on the meridian  $15^{\circ}$  degrees east of the meridian of London, and 11 o'clock in the forenoon at all places situated  $15^{\circ}$  west of London. For example, the meridian of Paris is  $2^{\circ} 20'$  east of the meridian of London. This difference of longitude, converted into time, reckoning  $15^{\circ}$  to 1 hour, or  $1^{\circ}$  to 4 minutes of time, is 9 minutes 20 seconds of time. Therefore when it is noon at London it will be 9 minutes 20 seconds after noon at Paris ; and on the contrary when it is noon at Paris, it will be only 50 minutes 40 seconds after 11 o'clock at London ; so that the clocks

at London ought to be slower than the clocks at Paris by 9 minutes 20 seconds.

The latitude of a place (as has been said) is its distance from the equator, north or south, and is reckoned in degrees and minutes upon the meridian. Or, the latitude of a place is an arc of the meridian intercepted between the place and the equator.

The longitude of a place is its distance from the first meridian, east or west, and is reckoned in degrees and minutes upon the equator. Or, the longitude of a place is an arc of the equator intercepted between the meridian of the place and the first meridian.

*To find the latitude of any place on the terrestrial globe.*

Bring the place to the graduated side of the strong brass meridian, or bring the graduated side of the moveable meridian\* to the place. The degree of the meridian which is over the place is the latitude required. Thus, London will be found in latitude  $51^{\circ} 32'$  north, Constantinople in latitude  $41^{\circ}$  north, the cape of Good Hope in latitude  $34^{\circ}$  south.

*To find the longitude of any place on the globe.*

Set the moveable meridian to the place, or bring the place under the strong brass meridian. The degree of the equator which is cut by the meridian is the longitude required. Thus, the longitude of Boston is  $71^{\circ}$  west from London; the longitude of Rome is  $12^{\circ} 30'$  east.

*The latitude and longitude of any place being known, to find that place upon the globe.*

Bring the moveable meridian to the given longitude on the equator, or bring the longitude to the strong brass meridian. The degree of the meridian which answers to the given latitude will show the situation of the place.

The latitude of Smyrna (in Asia) is  $38^{\circ} 28'$  north, and longitude  $27^{\circ} 30'$  east. Bring the moveable meridian to  $27^{\circ} 30'$

\* Some globes have a thin moveable meridian.

east on the equator, Smyrna will be found under  $38^{\circ} 28'$  north on the meridian.

Many other problems may be solved on the terrestrial globe ; but they are of little or no use, and the method of solving them is unintelligible to those who have not learned spherical trigonometry.

*To find the latitude of any place on a map.*

Observe the distance of the place from the nearest parallel of latitude, and find the degrees and minutes on the side of the map at the same distance from the same parallel. The number of degrees and minutes will be the latitude of the place.

*To find the longitude of any place on a map.*

Observe the distance of the place from the nearest meridian, and find the degrees and minutes at the top or bottom of the map at the same distance from the same meridian. The number of degrees and minutes will be the longitude of the place.

Note. The meridians are supposed to be parallel. In some maps the meridians converge from the equator to the poles, in which case the distance of the place must be taken less at the top or bottom of the map.

*The latitude and longitude of any place being known, to find that place on a map.*

Find the latitude of the place on the side of the map, and the longitude at the top or bottom. Observe where the nearest parallel and meridian intersect each other. The place will be found near the intersection, and as far distant from the parallel and meridian as the latitude and longitude are distant from them.





# GEOGRAPHICAL DELINEATIONS.

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## THE WORLD.

ON a general survey of the surface of this terraqueous globe, two circumstances can scarcely fail to strike the observer; the great proportion of sea amounting, at least, to two thirds of the whole; and the disproportion of land in the two hemispheres, the land in the northern hemisphere being more than double that in the southern. The latter inequality long maintained a persuasion among theorists, of the existence of large tracts of undiscovered land in the southern hemisphere; but the researches of modern navigators, especially of the celebrated Cook, have disproved this supposition, at least with respect to the latitudes corresponding to those in which the great masses of land on the northern side of the equator are situated.

The sea is peopled with animated beings as well as the land. As far as the interests of the human race are concerned, experience seems to prove that the quantity of land is fully adequate to any probable increase of mankind; for in all past periods, as well as at present, vast regions have remained either totally unoccupied by man, or very imperfectly possessed by him, although situated in climates the best adapted to his culture. The ocean, too, which an ancient poet has termed *dissociable*, has been rendered, by modern improvements in navi-

gation, the readiest medium of communication between remote parts of the earth. The conveyance from Europe to China by sea is much easier than carriage by land one fourth of the distance; and a vessel will sooner circumnavigate the globe than a caravan will travel the length of the Russian empire.

Nothing can be more opposite to mechanical ideas of regularity, than the form and disposition of the land on the globe as moulded by the circumfluent ocean. Two main continents or continued tracts appear, of which, however, large parts are nearly severed from the rest, and the edges are singularly broken by projections and indentations. In many places separations seem to have been entirely effected by the force of the water, producing the detached spots called islands; unless it be a more probable supposition, that from a gradual shrinking of the fluid which once covered the whole globe, the elevated parts and prominent points of a subaqueous land have disclosed themselves as islands, peninsulas, and promontories.

Of the two continents the larger, which from the earliest records of the world has been the seat of all science, was by the geographers of antiquity divided into three portions, usually called quarters of the world; and this distribution is still observed. The other continent, a new discovery, has been considered as a fourth quarter; and thus the number, as referring to parts of a whole, has been completed, although with great disproportion of the several parts. The islands have been adjudged to those quarters nearest to which they are situated.

The Ocean may, with respect to its universal communication, be regarded as one; but for geographical purposes it has been distributed into portions, relatively to the lands between which they are interposed, or their position with regard to the poles and circles of the globe. The greatest of these parts, constituting almost one half of the surface of the globe, has had the appellation of the Pacific ocean, from the tranquillity observed by navigators in crossing it in certain directions. It fills up the space between Asia and America, and is geographically divided by the equator into northern and southern: the northern may be said to be bounded by the strait between the two continents: the southern has no definite limit.

Another great ocean is the Atlantic, flowing between Europe and Africa on one side, and the eastern coast of America on the other. Northward it joins the Arctic ocean, an appellation given to the sea between the northern shores of the old and new continents, and the north pole; an expanse of ice rather than of water. An Antarctic sea round the south pole has also been marked by geographers, but no land has been discovered to give it a natural limit. The Indian ocean is that tract of sea which lies between the southern coast of Asia, the eastern side of Africa, and New Holland. All the other seas may be considered only as arms or branches of these. The Mediterranean; however, flowing between the three quarters of the old continent, and communicating with the Atlantic only by a narrow strait, may claim particular notice.

## EUROPE.

OF the four quarters of the world Europe is considerably the least. It occupies a portion of the north temperate zone, from the 36th degree of latitude northward: a small part of it, however, projects beyond the arctic circle. Its boundaries are the Atlantic and Arctic oceans to the west and north; the Mediterranean and Black seas with their communicating branches to the south; and an indistinct line of rivers and mountains, separating it from Asia, to the east.

The outline of this mass is extremely irregular, being broken into islands and peninsular tracts, and intersected by bays and gulfs. Of the latter the most remarkable is the Baltic sea, with its annexed gulfs of Finland and Bothnia, making a peninsula of a large part of the north of Europe. The German sea and British channel cut off the British isles from the continent. The bay of Biscay interposes itself between France and Spain, and, by the approach of the Mediterranean on the opposite side, forms the peninsula of Spain and Portugal. The Adriatic or gulf of Venice renders a similar office to Italy.

The internal part of Europe exhibits the variety of surface that is to be found in all large tracts of the globe. Its peculiarities will be noted under the head of each country into which it is divided. It will suffice in a general survey to remark, that the land rises into the highest mountains toward the south, especially opposite to the centre of the Mediterranean sea, where they constitute the Alps of Savoy and Switzerland; and that the eastern side, for the most part, consists of one vast plain, extending from the Black sea to the Northern ocean.

Within such a range of latitude great diversities of climate must necessarily exist; but the prevalent character of Europe is that of moderate temperature. Of the two extremes that of cold alone is felt; the heat in no part can be compared with

that of the torrid regions. In no part is the human skin blackened by the rays of the sun ; nor does nature in any part yield those spontaneous products which sustain the life of man without care and toil.\* To these circumstances it is probably owing that the men of Europe have at all times displayed more vigour and energy than the inhabitants of the other quarters of the globe ; and that in arms, arts, and sciences they have for a long course of ages maintained a superiority, which the progress of improvement has rendered more and more conspicuous. Whilst European colonies and settlements are spread over the richest tracts of the world, and every coast is visited by ships from Europe, she keeps herself inviolate from all extraneous dominion, and is only known to the unenterprising natives of the east and the south by the awe she inspires. It is in Europe alone (that part of America which may be called European excepted) that the human mind is in a progressive state ; that improvement of every kind is assiduously cultivated ; and that the principle of liberal curiosity is active. Here only, in short, man appears in the full exertion of all the faculties of his nature, and attains his proper rank in the scale of beings. With the European countries, therefore, as the most worthy objects of contemplation, and as chiefly influencing the fate of the rest of the world, these sketches will commence. We shall begin our tour from the north, that we may enjoy the satisfaction of seeing the face of nature gradually improve upon us in our progress.

## DENMARK AND NORWAY.

THE most northern part of Europe is distinguished by a vast peninsular tract, disposed in a kind of horse-shoe shape, of which the Atlantic and Arctic oceans form the exterior boundary, while the Baltic sea, with its branches, the gulfs of Bothnia and Finland, separate it from the southern mass of continent. On the east it is joined to Russia by a broad neck, though a chain of lakes leaves but a small space of connecting land.

Toward the south-western extremity of this peninsula, another peninsular tract, but of small comparative dimensions, runs out to meet it; and some islands form steps, as it were, between the two.

This great portion of land, of which the part known to the ancients received the general name of Scandinavia, now constitutes the kingdoms of Denmark and Sweden, and makes a small addition to the mighty empire of Russia.

DENMARK PROPER consists of the smaller peninsula above mentioned, and its annexed islands. From the borders of the Dutchy of Holstein in Germany, about lat.  $54^{\circ} 20'$  the countries of Sleswick and Jutland extend northward, till they terminate in a point or beak, bending eastward in lat.  $57^{\circ} 40'$ . This tract, about 220 miles in length, is very narrow at its southern part, but increases in breadth northward, till it approaches its termination. The principal islands are Zeeland, Funen, Laland, and Falster, stretching across the entrance of the Baltic sea, to which they leave only narrow channels of communication. The largest island, Zeeland, approaches very near to the Swedish coast, from which it is separated only by the strait of the Sound. This is the chief passage to the Baltic, of which Denmark, from its position, holds, as it were, the keys;

an advantage which it employs to levy a toll, which is a considerable branch of its revenue.

All this country, together with the province of Holstein, in Germany, which belongs to the crown of Denmark, is a comparatively low tract, and in great part level. The most fertile parts are the isles of Zeeland and Funen, the southern portion of the peninsula, and Holstein. Jutland has many upland moors, forests, and marshes, and is intersected with wide shallow lakes communicating with the sea. The climate is moist and foggy, and, for the latitude, rather temperate, though the winters are sometimes very rigorous. Instances frequently occur of the freezing of the Sound, so as to permit heavy carriages to pass on the ice to Sweden. The season of spring is scarcely known in these regions, and the change from winter to summer is almost instant.

The common products of northern agriculture are raised with success in Denmark, and the different kinds of grain are grown in sufficient quantity to allow of exportation in good years. Flax is a common object of culture, and affords a material for home manufacture. Although the climate seems little adapted to fruit-trees, yet cider is the usual beverage of the peasantry of Sleswick. The pastures are rich, and rear domestic animals of remarkable bulk. The horses and horned cattle of Denmark and Holstein are noted for size and strength.

The countries above described form by much the smaller part in extent of the territories under the Danish crown, which also comprehend the ancient kingdom of Norway and the remote island of Iceland.

NORWAY is a tract of country forming the western border of the great Scandinavian peninsula. It extends from the 58th degree of N. latitude to beyond the 71st, in an oblique direction, from S. E. to N. W. Its breadth is very small in proportion. At its southern end, indeed, it swells out into a breadth of 200 or 250 miles, which suddenly contracts about the 63d degree of latitude, after which it is only a strip of land between the sea and the hills that separate it from Sweden.

The long sea-coast is singularly broken and torn through its whole extent into numberless creeks and islands, generally faced with high rocky cliffs, having deep water at their bases. Of the inlets not many are fit for the purposes of navigation, and the streams that run into them are mountain-torrents, impeded by frequent shallows and cataracts. Off the northern part of the coast lies a whirlpool, named Maelstroom, the dread of mariners ; capable of drawing in small vessels, and whelming them in an abyss beset with submarine rocky points.

The chain of mountains, which may be termed the back-bone of Scandinavia, descending from the extreme north, forms the limit between Norway and Sweden, in one continued ridge, to the 62d or 63d degree of latitude, when it divides into two main branches ; a western, keeping within Norway, parallel to, and not remote from, the coast, quite to its southern extremity ; and an eastern, continuing the barrier between the two countries, till at length it enters and loses itself in Sweden. The Norwegian mountains, though rugged and savage, cannot compare in altitude with the Alps and Pyrenees, and decline in height towards the north. Notwithstanding the rigour of the climate, they are for the most part thickly clothed with pine forests. They abound in spiry crags and horrible precipices, and are passable only in particular spots, by winding roads and hanging bridges, which are among the most daring works of human industry.

The only river of Norway which finds room for a considerable length of course, is the Glommen, which, rising in that lofty part of the mountainous chain called the Dofrine hills, takes a southern direction across the widest part of Norway, till it discharges itself into the sea opposite to the point of Jutland. Though it brings down a large quantity of water, it is rendered nearly unnavigable by shoals and cataracts.

Lakes are numerous in the southern part of Norway, and some of them of great extent. They occupy the bosoms of the hills or the vallies through which streams take their course, and often present very beautiful and picturesque scenery, which would excite admiration if it were placed in a more inviting and frequented country.



Although the general character of this region is that of a rude and sterile land, yet its southern portion has a large admixture of pleasant and fertile country, agreeably varied in its surface, well watered, and not unfriendly to the labours of the husbandman. The climate, indeed, renders the harvests precarious, and the grain is scarcely ripened by the short summer before the autumnal rains threaten its destruction. In the hilly parts the rearing of cattle is pursued with advantage. The native growth of the mountains, the firs and pines of different species, afford a source of wealth which, under proper management, would be inexhaustible. Wherever these trees are accessible, they are cut down and rolled into the next torrent, whence they are conveyed to the sea coast. Part is exported in the form of whole trunks, only stript of their bark and squared; and part is converted into deal boards at the numerous saw-mills erected upon the banks of the streams. The tar and pitch yielded by the same species of trees afford other valuable articles of exportation.

Of wild animals, the bear, the lynx, the gibbon, the fox, and various smaller quadrupeds harbour in the forests and inaccessible crags of the alpine parts. The Kolenrock is celebrated as the head-quarters of that curious species of rat, the lemming, which at certain periods issues thence in innumerable armies, devouring every thing before them, till their course is stopped by the sea.

The sea-coast of Norway is frequented by shoals of fish of various species, which greatly contribute to the sustenance of the inhabitants, and afford employment to a number of hardy mariners. The rocky shores are particularly favourable to the breeding of shell-fish; and large quantities of fine lobsters are exported to supply the luxury of the English metropolis. Among the wonders of the deep in these regions have been enumerated fancied creatures of enormous bulk, which are now considered as the offspring of fable or gross exaggeration.


Nature has compensated the scantiness of her products on the surface of this country, by the abundance of its mineral treasures. The silver mines of Kongsberg in the south were long reckoned the richest of that metal in Europe, but have latterly

fallen off in their produce. The iron mines in the same quarter are still more valuable. Copper is yielded in large quantity by mines in the district of Drontheim. Lead, cobalt, and a variety of marbles and other useful stones and earths add to the catalogue of the riches of the mineral kingdom.



The Island of ICELAND would, by its bulk, constitute an important part of the Danish dominions, if it were more favourably treated by nature with respect to soil and climate. Iceland is situated in the northern Atlantic, far to the west of Norway, chiefly between the 64th and 67th degrees of N. latitude. Its size is variously estimated, but probably equals 260 miles from east to west, by 200 from north to south. Its coast is extremely rugged, deeply indented with bays and creeks, which form secure havens. Ridges of lofty mountains traverse the country, and give it a most desolate appearance, aggravated by the horrors of perpetual winter, in which a large part of it is buried.


Fire and frost here encroach upon each other's limits. Some of the loftiest mountains are volcanoes, which, by their internal heat and sulphureous exhalations, keep their summits free from the snow and ice that encrust the neighbouring eminences. Hecla maintains a conspicuous rank among these terrific exhibitions of nature, and its eruptions have been some of the most copious and destructive that modern times have witnessed. It was, however, from another mountain that the prodigious deluge of lava proceeded, which in 1783, filled up large valleys, and turned the course of rivers. Fountains of boiling water, some of which form magnificent jets to a great height in the air, further attest the dominion of intestine fire.

This Island, however, in many parts affords tolerable pasturage, and is not entirely unproductive of grain, though in quantities inadequate to the wants of the inhabitants. Its shallow soil, and the violence of the winds, will not permit the growth of trees beyond the height of shrubs. The rural wealth of the Icelanders consists chiefly in their kine and sheep. The former are small, and mostly hornless; the latter, on the contrary, have large horns, and often more than the usual number. Their wool is used in domestic manufacture.

Of the wild animals of Iceland, the most dreaded are the white or polar bears, which are frequently brought to the coast from Greenland or Spitzbergen upon ice-islands. Beside the mischief of importing these unwelcome visitants, the huge masses of ice stranded on the shore bring with them a degree of cold which starves the whole adjacent country for months till they are dissolved. 

Iceland has long been famous for its hawks, used in the noble sport of falconry. The finest of these are reserved for the king of Denmark, who sends his falconer annually into the island to purchase them. The highest price is given for a large species of falcon sometimes of a pure white. The capture of seals is a source of profit to the Icelanders; and the fish, which resort in great numbers to their coast, might be much more so, if they were enabled to pursue the fishery with due advantage.

 Another appendage to the Danish crown is the FEROE ISLANDS, a group situated between the Shetland Isles and Iceland, about the 62d degree of N. latitude. These are mountains steeply emerging from the sea, some of them indented by creeks forming secure harbours, and separated from one another by deep channels swept by rapid currents. The surrounding seas are full of whirlpools, formed by the struggle of the tides and currents in the craggy channels. About seventeen of these isles are habitable.  Their shallow but fruitful soil yields barley, and good pasturage for sheep, with which they abound. The rocky cliffs are the resort of great flocks of sea-fowl, which tempt the inhabitants to extraordinary exertions for the sake of their eggs, flesh, and feathers. In no country is the hazardous business of fowling conducted with more skill and intrepidity; and the most tremendous precipices are either scaled from below, by men raised upon the poles of their companions, or are reached from above by those who are let down by means of ropes fastened about their waists. The delicate eider down is one of the most valuable articles to the fowlers.

 The Kingdom of DENMARK, comprehending the countries above described, ranks among the secondary powers of Europe.

Its government is a monarchy, changed, nearly 150 years ago, from limited to absolute, in consequence of the voluntary surrender of their liberties by the lower orders of the state, insulted and oppressed by the higher. It is, however, administered with mildness and moderation, and is restricted by legal forms.

The established religion in all the dominions is the Lutheran. Its superior order of clergy is dignified with the episcopal title, but enjoys only a moderate degree of power or splendour.

The peasantry in Denmark Proper are mostly in a state of vassalage, and in their manners bear the mark of their servitude. Those of Norway, on the contrary, are mostly free, and in their character and demeanour display the generous tokens of liberty. They are brave, frank, and spirited ; and, notwithstanding the rudeness of their climate, are possessed of more of the comforts of life than most of their rank throughout Europe.

The language of all these countries is a dialect of the ancient Gothic, of which the Icelandic is reckoned the purest.

The Danes do not stand high as a literary nation ; their principal writings consisting of historical compilations, for which Iceland in the early ages afforded considerable materials. That remote island, indeed, like Ireland, seems in the confusions of the continent to have been a place of refuge for letters, and its treasures in poetry, history, and mythology have engaged the curiosity of modern erudition. The genius of the Danes at present is chiefly turned to commerce and economical improvement.

The capital of Denmark, Copenhagen, in the island of Zealand, is a noted sea-port. Its name, indeed, in the language of the country signifies Merchant's-haven. It is one of the best built cities in the north of Europe, and has a population estimated at 95000 persons. Its port is well fortified, and in one of its suburbs are docks and arsenals upon a large scale for the royal navy, which is usually laid up here. Copenhagen possesses an university and a royal academy of sciences, neither of much distinction. Its citizens are hospitable, and much addicted to social entertainments and public amusements. Sleswig, the capital of the dutchy of that name, is a well-built town in the German style. Kiel in Holstein has a respectable university. Altona, on the Elbe, almost contiguous to Hamburg, in

point of commerce and population is the second city of the kingdom. Of Norway the capital is Bergen, a sea-port with a moderate share of trade. Christiana, on the southern coast of Norway, is, however, the principal port for the exportation of the timber and metals of that country. ✓

The population of the Danish dominions is small in comparison with their extent. The whole amount is reckoned at two millions and a half, of which Norway supplies only 800000, and Iceland not more than 50000.

The manufactures of these countries are few, and only for domestic use. The exports are chiefly of native products ; those of Denmark and Holstein being corn, cattle and horses ; of Norway, timber in great quantity, silver, copper, and iron, hides, and fish ; of Iceland, dried fish, feathers, and skins. The Danish settlements on the coasts of Coromandel and Guinea, and in the West Indies, afford other articles of commerce, and increase the number of sailors. The shipping trade is considerable, and enables Denmark to support a respectable navy, manned with hardy and brave sea-men. The public revenue is not large, but adequate to the expenses.

## SWEDEN.

THIS country composes the whole interior part of the great Scandinavian peninsula, and constitutes its chief breadth. From its southern extremity in about latitude  $55^{\circ} 20'$  it stretches in a northern direction inclined to the east to nearly the 70th degree of latitude, and then, bending round, forms an eastern branch, which comes down to latitude  $60^{\circ}$ . The gulf of Bothnia interposes itself between the two branches, and the gulf of Finland forms the separation between the eastern branch and Livonia. The Baltic sea, with its entrance, the Cattegat, washes the rest of its coast. Its inland limit on the western side is chiefly the great chain of mountains mentioned under Norway. This, however, ceases to be the boundary toward the southern extremity, and the two kingdoms are there separated only by an imaginary line. The eastern boundary on the side of Russia is partly another mountainous ridge, partly an assumed line. The greatest length of Sweden is computed at 1150 English miles; its greatest breadth, including the Bothnian gulf, at about 600 miles.

Sweden, in general, is marked with the rude features of a northern region. Of these features many are highly picturesque, and afford assemblages of rural beauty which, in a more propitious climate, would greatly delight the lovers of nature. Its surface is diversified with numerous lakes, some of great extent, large and clear rivers, torrents and cataracts, dark forests, craggy rocks, and verdant dales. A striking characteristic of the country in many parts is the frequency of detached masses of rock, starting out of the ground, and imparting a singularly wild and rugged appearance to the landscape.

Of the mountains of Sweden the principal are those which form the boundary ridge on the side of Norway, and may be reckoned common to both countries. Branches are in many

parts sent off from this chain into Sweden, especially towards the north, where they constitute the Lapland Alps. The long ridge which separates Swedish from Russian Lapland, and terminates in Finland, is a continuation of this chain. In the south-west, branches proceed from the Dofrine hills, which overspread the mountainous region of Dalecarlia.

These high tracts give birth to numerous rivers, which take a direct course to the Bothnian gulph on its western, northern, and eastern sides. One of the principal of these, the Tornea, entering the head of that gulf, is noted for the access it affords, though by a difficult and interrupted navigation, to the remotest part of Lapland, bordering on the North cape. In the southern part of Sweden the rivers run into the Baltic and Cattegat, but have generally a short course and broken channel. The most important of the Swedish rivers is the Dahl, which, springing from the Dofrine ridge, waters the province to which it gives name (Dalarn or Dalecarlia) and enters the gulf of Bothnia at its southern extremity, near the town of Gefle. It has a cataract near its mouth, rendered awfully sublime by the breadth of the stream and the wildness of the surrounding scenery.

The lakes of Sweden surpass those of most European countries in number and magnitude. The Wener, nearly 100 miles by 50 or 60, almost deserves the name of an inland sea. The Weter, in its neighbourhood, is equally long, but narrower. The Meler, which communicates with the Baltic near Stockholm, is a large expanse of water besprinkled with islands. Lapland possesses numerous lakes in the course of its rivers: that of Enara, near the North cape, is the most extensive. Finland is overspread with lakes in such a manner, that a great proportion of its surface appears to be water. Many of the Swedish lakes abound in fish, and are serviceable as means of inland navigation. They are frequently skirted with forests, which greatly add to their beauty. Forests are likewise common in other parts, supplying timber for domestic use and for exportation, and fuel for the numerous founderies and forges.

Although the great extent of latitude occupied by Sweden necessarily implies considerable diversity of climate in its dif-

ferent parts, yet the whole comes under the denomination of a cold country, and the gradation is only from moderate to extreme severity. The sea on its most southern coast is frozen in hard winters, and the Bothnian gulf constantly becomes a field of ice in that season, and is regularly crossed by travellers in sledges. Between the long winters and the short summers there is scarcely any interval of spring or autumn, and the labours of agriculture are crowded into a short compass. The great length of the days in the northern latitudes, where for a certain time the sun never sets, produces extreme heat, which, however, is too fugitive to bring to maturity any of the more valuable fruits of the earth. The most favourable circumstance in the climate is, that the interposition of the Norwegian mountains defends the country from those gales which bring deluges of rain from the Atlantic upon the north-western coasts of Europe, and thus renders the weather steady and equable.

The southern part of Sweden, under skilful culture, yields grain in tolerable abundance; wheat, however, is a rarity beyond the reach of the lower classes, and rye, barley, and oats compose their principal sustenance. In unfavourable years even these fail; and it is not uncommon for the poor to be reduced to mix a large proportion of the inner bark of the fir with meal, in order to make out their due quantity of unsavoury bread. Fruit-trees are scarcely seen beyond the southern provinces; the moors and woods, however, supply a variety of berries, which make an agreeable and salutary addition to the common articles of food. The pastures in general are lean, and the domestic animals are of the smaller size. The forests abound in game, both footed and feathered. In Lapland a species of elk, the renne or rein-deer, which in a wild state is an object of the chase, by domestication is rendered the most valuable possession of the inhabitants, and the foundation of their rural economy.

Sweden is peculiarly a mineral country, and its riches in this kingdom of nature have long been assiduously cultivated. Gold and silver are found, though not in quantities which render them objects of profit comparable to the inferior metals. Of the lat-



ter, copper is one of the most valuable. The principal mines of this metal are situated in the province of Dalecarlia: that near the town of Fahlun has been worked during many centuries, and is one of the largest in Europe. Lead is also a product of the Swedish mines; but it is for the abundance and excellence of its iron that Sweden is particularly celebrated. This metal is widely diffused, and forms a very considerable article of commerce. The iron of the mine of Danmora in Upland is chiefly exported to England, where it is converted into the best steel. Cobalt, zinc, and antimony, are met with in different parts. Coal has been discovered, but as yet is little used, the plenty of wood supplying the present demands for fuel.

The Swedes are a people chiefly of Gothic origin, and bear the national character of frankness, bravery, honesty, and hospitality common to that race. They have more vivacity than is usual among the northern people, whence they have been termed the French of the north. They also resemble that people in an insinuating, accommodating turn, which fits them for making their way, and also in a disposition to make the most of their merits. They are generally well made and robust. In their complexions they vary; the prevalent colour in some provinces being dark and tawny, in others fair.

The Swedish language is one of the dialects of the Teutonic, and differs from its sister-dialects in a greater proportion of vowels, with which many of their words terminate. It seems to produce a pliancy in the organs of speech; for the Swedes are remarkable for their readiness in acquiring foreign languages, and speaking them well.

The peasantry are chiefly employed in the labours of husbandry, and in working the mines. There being few mechanics by trade among them, most of the peasants exercise various handicrafts for domestic use, in which they display much ingenuity. The towns are inhabited by persons engaged in commerce. The nobility and gentry reside much upon their estates in the country, few being able to afford the expenses incident to a court and capital.

No nation has at different periods been more distinguished for a martial spirit, and under some of their kings they were the admiration and terror of Europe; but the political circumstances of modern times have sunk them in the scale of power, and their spirits have fallen with their consequence.

The northern part of Sweden is inhabited by a very different race of men, the Laplanders. The wide region called Lapland, or Lapmark, extends, indeed, into the limits of Norway and Russia; but the greater part of it belongs to Sweden, of which it occupies the whole district round the northern part of the gulf of Bothnia. This country, near the gulf, is chiefly composed of granite rock; but inland it consists of vast marshy forests, intermixed with lakes, and terminating at length in mountains.

The rigorous cold which prevails in this tract has stamped a peculiar character on the persons and manners of the people inhabiting it. They are a diminutive race, with large heads, narrow eyes, black hair, and swarthy complexion, speaking a rude and scarcely articulate language, apparently proper to themselves, but said to bear a resemblance to the Finnish.

In way of life they are divided into the fixed and the wandering Laplanders. The first are settled in villages near the sea or lakes, and are chiefly occupied in fishing. The second are a truly pastoral people, living in tents or huts, and keeping herds of rein-deer, which constitute their principal wealth. These animals supply them with food from their milk and flesh; with clothing from their skins; and there is no part about them which is not put to some domestic use. In summer the pastoral Laplander keeps his herds on the mountains, where they feed on the short grass, and escape the insects, which are a dreadful pest both to man and beast in that season. In the long winters they are brought down to the forests and plains, where their chief sustenance is a species of lichen or dry moss, produced in such abundance as to cover and whiten large tracts of ground. This useful animal, which can only live in an intensely cold climate, serves the Laplander likewise as a beast of draught, and, being harnessed to a light sledge, conveys him and his goods over the frozen snow to the fairs held at dis-

tant towns during the winter. The eggs of water-fowl and various kinds of game afford other articles of food to these people ; nor are they entirely unprovided with bread and vegetables. Many of them live in a kind of rustic plenty, which compensates for the dreariness of their climate and the solitude of their abodes.

They know little of the obligations or restraints of civil society, and nothing of the hardships of war, for which, from their timidity and smallness of stature, they are totally unfit. They are weak, ignorant, and superstitious ; but harmless, and not void of the ingenuity requisite in their modes of living. They have a kind of rude poetry, in which they address their mistresses, or recount their success in the chase. The whole number of this nation is not considerable, the population of their wild regions being exceedingly thin and scattered.

Another race of men distinct from the Swedes is that of the Finns or Finlanders, who chiefly inhabit the eastern side of the Bothnian gulf. They speak a language of their own, and are distinguished by some peculiarities of person and manners ; but those who live under the dominion of Sweden are continually losing their distinctions. A large part of their country has been given up to Russia, and their present connexions are principally with that power.

Various islands in the Baltic sea and Bothnian gulf belong to the crown of Sweden, of which the principal are Rugen near the coast of Pomerania, Oeland, Gothland, and Aland. These are in general tolerably fertile and well inhabited. Wisby in the isle of Gothland was once a great seat of commerce, and is famous in history for having given birth to a maritime code of great authority throughout Europe. The dutchy of Pomerania, making a part of Germany, and only politically annexed to Sweden, will come more properly in another chapter.

The government of Sweden is a monarchy, which at different periods has received different degrees of limitation from the diet or general assembly of the several orders of the state. In 1772 the late king, Gustavus III, effected a revolution which rendered the crown nearly absolute. The exertion of the royal authority, however, is liable to great checks from

the representations of the diet, and still more from the influence of foreign potentates, who are able to purchase a party among the poor and venal nobility. Few countries have more severely felt the evils of faction, or the interference of foreign interests.

The religion established in all the Swedish dominions is the Lutheran in its episcopal form. All other modes of worship were severely excluded, till the modern spirit of toleration began to spread to this country. So small, however, is the resort of foreigners to it, that the number of separatists from the national church is inconsiderable.

The population of Sweden is small in comparison to its extent, probably less than three millions. The class of nobility is very numerous, and several orders of knighthood have been devised for the purpose of attaching them to the crown by cheap honours. The military establishment has been disproportionately great under some martial kings; but neither the fund of population nor the revenue can admit of such extraordinary exertions without lasting inconvenience. Indeed, Sweden has generally been subsidised by the powers with whom she has co-operated in arms.

Stockholm, the capital, seated upon an outlet by which the lake Mæler communicates with the Baltic, covers several rocky islands, and, from the mixture of buildings and expanses of water, presents a singular and romantic appearance. It is tolerably built, and moderately populous, being both the residence of the court and the centre of commerce. Its harbour is somewhat difficult of access, but secure and capacious when entered. The port of Stockholm is supposed to possess above one half of the foreign trade of the kingdom. It has a royal academy of sciences, and other literary institutions.

Gottenburg, or Gotheborg, is the second city for trade and population: it is the seat of the Swedish East-India company, and carries on a very extensive herring fishery. A water-communication between this place and the capital has been opened, part of which is a canal made with great labour and expense. Carlskrona is noted as being the station of the royal navy: its docks, hewn in the rock, are works of vast magnitude. Upsal,

the seat of an archbishop, is distinguished by its university, the principal in the kingdom, and celebrated throughout Europe for the eminence of its professors. It had to boast of the illustrious Linnæus, who rendered it peculiarly famous for the study of natural history. It likewise possesses a royal academy of sciences. Lunden, and Abo the capital of Finland, are also universities of repute. Education is cheap and well attended to in Sweden, whence a certain degree of literature is widely diffused; but this is rather of the useful than the ornamental kind. Mineralogy, as being connected with the most valuable products of the country, and chemistry, as teaching the most advantageous use of these products, have been cultivated by the Swedes with peculiar ardour and success. The disciples of the Linnean school have done great honour to themselves and their country, by their travels into various parts of the globe for the purpose of making researches into the objects presented by all the kingdoms of nature, and into the practice of the economic arts. The native language of Sweden, being confined within her own dominions, has not much engaged the attention of her writers; yet works in various branches have lately been composed in it, which have obtained local celebrity.

Sweden possesses few manufactures: those of iron and steel are the most considerable. It makes some articles of clothing, but only for home consumption. Its exports are chiefly products of the country, such as planks, beams, and masts, iron, steel, and copper, pitch and tar, potash, and cured herrings. It imports part of the corn requisite for its support, and various articles of luxury. Its East India trade is of late years become inconsiderable. Its only colonial possession, the island of St. Bartholomew, affords it a small share in the West India trade. With the European states, its principal commercial connexion is with England, and next to that, with France.

## RUSSIA IN EUROPE.

THE three northern powers of Europe, as they have been usually termed, are Denmark, Sweden, and Russia. A kind of equality formerly prevailed between them; but the latter, has within a century past been so much augmented in power and consequence, that all balance in the north is destroyed, and the utmost that the two smaller can do, is to maintain their independence against the greater.

In point of extent, indeed, no empire, ancient or modern, probably could vie with that of Russia. Situated in two quarters of the world, it possesses a surface of country in each greater than that under the dominion of any single power of either. It has likewise the advantage of unbroken continuity between all the parts of its vast territories; so that expeditions may be sent from one end to the other, in a progress of months, and even years, without requiring the co-operation of any other government.

But the greatest part of this tract is a region of cold and sterility, in which the utmost exertions of man can scarcely afford him a tolerable existence. It seems, indeed, intended by nature rather for the unmolested abode of the furry and feathered tribes to which it gives birth, than for the habitation of beings, whose nobler faculties can have no scope for exertion amid lonely deserts, where the whole attention must be occupied in resisting the evils of cold and hunger. It is, however, the Asiatic portion to which this description particularly applies. The European part, properly the seat of the nation, is sufficiently favoured by nature to maintain, in the necessaries and essential comforts of life, a population, thin indeed in proportion to the space over which it is spread, but numerous enough to constitute one of the most powerful communities in Europe.

The boundaries of Russia in Europe, as now extended by conquest and annexations, are, on the north, the Arctic or Frozen ocean ; on the west, Swedish Lapland and Finland, the gulf of Finland and Baltic sea, the Prussian and Austrian parts of the late Poland, and Turkish Moldavia ; on the south, the Black sea and sea of Azof, with the country of the Nogay Tatars. Its eastern limits are its own Asiatic territories, of which the boundary line is not exactly defined ; but the small river Cara in Samoiedia, with the great chain of the Uralian mountains, make a tolerably distinct natural division between the two quarters of the globe as far down as the 56th degree of N. latitude : thence it is artificially made to the junction of the Kama with the Volga : that great river next forms the boundary as far as its nearest point of approach to the Don ; the line then passes to the latter river, which carries it to its termination in the sea of Azof. Between the southern point of Krim Tatory, and the northerly extremity of Russian Lapland, Russia extends from about the 45th to 68th degree of N. latitude, or nearly 1600 statute miles : its middle breadth may be reckoned about 1000 miles.

The face of the country in this wide tract is more uniform than in any other of equal extent in Europe. It is in general a vast plain, rising to elevated ground towards the centre, but affording few appearances of abrupt hills or lofty mountains. To the south are extensive steppes, or sandy deserts, continuous with those of Tatory : the borders of the Frozen ocean in the north are chiefly flat dreary marshes : near the great rivers Don and Volga are extensive meads, of a rich black soil, impregnated with nitre : the more internal parts have the ordinary varieties of soil, and surface in arable countries.

Of the mountainous chains, two only, and those on the borders, are remarkable. These are the mountains of Olonetz, running several hundred miles in a northerly direction, between Swedish and Russian Finland and Lapland ; and the great Uralian chain, forming a natural barrier between Europe and Asia for many degrees of the northern limits. Neither of these in height approaches the Alps or Pyrenees. What are called the mountains of Valdai, which are crossed between Petersburg and

Moscow, seem to be only a line of heights or uplands, no where rising to conspicuous summits. Krim Tatory has a chain of hills on its southern part, overlooking the shores of the Black sea.

The middle elevation of the country gives rise to numerous rivers, some of great magnitude and length of course. Of these the principal is the Volga, which has its source in some lakes of the Valdai mountains in the government of Tver, between Petersburg and Moscow. It flows in a winding course, bending to the south-east, quite across Russia, and after receiving the Kama, becomes the boundary between Europe and Asia: at length, below Tzaritzin, it makes another sharp turn to the south-east, and, entering Asia, passes Astrachan, and discharges itself into the Caspian sea. The whole course of this noble river is computed at about 1700 miles, and it is navigable nearly to its source. Of its numerous tributary streams, the largest are the Oka from the west, which unites the waters of the most central parts of Russia, and the Kama from the north-east, descending from the Uralian mountains.

The Don, anciently Tanais, rises south of the Oka, and, after a long winding southern course, forms part of the boundary between Europe and Asia, and finally discharges itself into the sea of Azof, the ancient Palus Mæotis. The Dnieper, or Borysthènes, the largest river of the western side of Russia, takes its rise in the government of Smolensko, about the 55th degree of latitude, and, being joined by several considerable streams on the east and west, proceeds to the Black sea, which it enters by the estuary called the Liman, below the new city of Cherson. Into the same estuary the Bog, formerly a Polish river, pours its waters. The Dniester, which enters the Black sea more westward, now forms the boundary between the Turkish and Russian dominions: its source is in the Austrian part of Poland.

Into the Baltic flow the Memel, which rises in the dutchy of Lithuania, and makes the separation between the Russian and Prussian part of the Polish spoils; the Duna, the sources of which lie to the north of those of the Dnieper, and which reaches the sea at the gulf of Riga; and the Neva, which brings the



waters of the Ladoga lake to Petersburg, and enters the gulf of Finland below that capital.

From the northern part of Russia the rivers flow into the Frozen ocean. Of these the most important is the Dwina, which has a navigable course of 500 miles to Archangel, where it enters that gulf of the ocean which bears the name of the White sea. The Mezen, which discharges itself into the same gulf, and the Petzora, forming a large estuary further to the east, flow through the desolate regions of perpetual frost.

The largest lakes of European Russia are those of Onega and Ladoga, lying to the north and north-west of Petersburg. The discharge of the latter by the Neva has been already noticed : the Onega has a communication with it by means of a small river. Russian Lapland and Finland are sprinkled with numerous lakes, some of considerable magnitude. In Livonia is the lake Peypus, which gives rise to the Narva river. Several lakes lie to the east and south-east of the Onega. On the borders of the Ilmer lake is situated the ancient city of Novogorod.

A country extending through 23 degrees of latitude cannot but possess great diversity of climate ; but the name of Russia invariably conveys the idea of one of the cold regions of the globe. In fact, although its middle tracts lie parallel to Great Britain, and its southern run some degrees further to the south, yet its remoteness from any considerable expanse of sea, and its continental elevation, render even its finest provinces subject to extreme cold in the winter. It is only in the new province of Taurida, including the peninsula of Krim Tatory, that the vine, olive, mulberry, and other products of southern Europe can be cultivated with advantage. A large proportion of the Russian territory, however, is capable of producing the common grains, and the other articles of food for man and beast, which are the agricultural objects of the middle temperate zone. Even in the northern latitude of Livonia the harvests are sufficiently abundant to yield a large surplus for exportation. The southern plains near the Volga and Don are almost inexhaustibly fertile ; and the meadows are so luxuriant in natural grasses that no aid is required from artificial crops. Hemp and flax are grown to a great extent in all the strong soils, and afford important arti-

cles for commerce and manufacture. The common fruits and garden vegetables succeed extremely well to the south of Moscow. Forests, consisting of all the usual timber trees, overspread vast tracts in the central parts of Russia, and the pine genus grows abundantly, even in the high northern latitudes.

Of domestic animals the beeve kind is numerous and large almost through the whole country. The sheep of the south and south-eastern provinces are most valued for their wool. The flocks of the Krimea, indeed, are coarse-woolled, but the lambs afford a fine fur. The breeds of horses differ greatly, according to climate. Those of Lithuania are distinguished for strength; those of Livonia for speed; while the Tatarian steeds excel in beauty and spirit. Among its domestic servants Russia may reckon the two very different quadrupeds, the camel and the reindeer; the former being used in Taurida, and the latter on the shores of the Frozen ocean—a striking proof of its vast extent! Of wild animals, the forests and unfrequented parts are inhabited by the bear, the wolf, the lynx, the elk, and many of the smaller kinds; but the business of fur-hunting is chiefly pursued in the Asiatic part of the empire.

In mineral wealth European Russia does not abound. The mountains of Olonetz contain gold, but the produce has scarcely defrayed the expense of labour. Their iron mines are worked with advantage; and of this metal, and copper, there are valuable mines in the district of Perm, near the Uralian chain. A productive mineral tract also occurs at no great distance from Moscow. The district of Perecop, and the isle of Taman, in Taurida, contain copious springs of naphtha.

The people who inhabit these wide regions are, for the most part, of Slavonic blood, and of Asiatic origin: their progenitors were known by the name of Sarmatians. Long disunited among themselves, and in a state of barbarism, they were reduced in the 13th century to vassalage under the Tatars. From this condition they were rescued in the 15th century by their czar, Ivan Basilowitz, who, with his grandson, of the same name, men of vigour and talents, though rude and ferocious, extended the Russian dominion, and made the nation known

throughout Europe. Succeeding sovereigns among whom Peter I. and Catharine II. were pre-eminent, not only enlarged their territories, but promoted civilization and improvement of every kind ; and at length raised the Russian empire to the dignity of a first rate European power.

The Russian national character appears to be marked with sedateness and tranquillity, mixed with liveliness and sociability. They are hospitable and good-tempered among one another, capable of strong attachments, sagacious, and patient of hardships. The servitude in which the lower classes live, and the despotic rule exercised over the highest, have made them supple, cunning, and crouching ; and manly elevation of soul, with steady principle, are rarely met with among them. The ancient nobility have vast estates, which they reckon by the number of vassals with which they are stocked ; and they live in a kind of rude magnificence, shunning the court and public employments.

The Russian peasantry are remarkable for their readiness in acquiring the common arts of life, several of which they exercise for domestic purposes. In the higher departments of intellect nothing masterly or original has yet appeared among them ; which may perhaps be owing to their recent civilization. Their implicit obedience, joined with natural robustness of constitution and habits of endurance, renders them excellent soldiers in the modern practice of war, where mechanic discipline is more requisite than enthusiastic ardour. They shrink at no danger or fatigue, and are only to be conquered by extermination.

A singular circumstance in the Russian manners is the universal use made of hot and vapour-bathing, in which they support a degree of heat that would be intolerable to one unaccustomed to the practice. It is common among those of the lower class to roll naked in the snow after leaving one of these ovens ; nor does it appear that they suffer from this violent change. Their fondness for the bath seems to have been derived from an oriental source, to which many of their other customs may be referred.

The Russian language is a dialect of the Sclavonian, having no affinity with the current tongues of Europe, either in sound or syntax. It is difficult of pronunciation to a stranger, yet it abounds in vowels, and possesses considerable softness and melody. Russian literature is of late date, and is not likely ever to have the advantage of being judged and admired in the rest of Europe. It consists at present chiefly of translations; yet some original works in history and poetry have been popular in the country. The German language is much employed as a medium, both in commerce and science: indeed it is the native tongue of many subjects of the Russian empire.

The government of Russia is uncontrolled despotism in the person of a sovereign nationally entitled the czar, but known to other countries by the title of emperor, or autocrator. There is a senate, but it is only a court of judicature, and the legislative authority is an emanation from the throne. Like other despotic thrones, that of Russia has been subject to sudden and violent revolutions. Late events have shown that it is unsafe, even for so absolute a monarch, to sport with the habits and feelings of the nation; nor does it appear that the rules of succession are fixed and determinate. The late empress Catharine, though only the foreign widow of the emperor whom she had deposed, enjoyed a long and undisturbed reign after her son was arrived at manhood. The spirit of the government is entirely military, and all rank is adjusted by military titles. The empire is divided into governments, or viceroyalties, which are administered by persons with the rank of generals.

The predominant religion of Russia is that of the Greek church, a circumstance owing to its conversion to Christianity under the influence of the court of Constantinople. It has a numerous clergy, both regular and secular, the latter of whom are permitted to marry. A patriarch is at the head of the hierarchy, whose power, formerly dangerous to the crown, was reduced by the czar Peter. The Russian clergy are reckoned in general very ignorant and by no means exemplary in their morals. Their flocks are extremely superstitious, and their

religion consists chiefly in a rigorous observance of the fasts of the church, and profound veneration to the pictures of their saints. A full toleration is granted to all the numerous religions which are professed by the subjects of the empire, and also by strangers who reside in it; but they are not permitted to make converts: and those of the natives who belong to the established church must always continue members of it. Every thing in this empire is done by command, and nothing is left to the decision of individual will.

The European part of the Russian empire constitutes so large a share of its population and consequence, that a political sketch of it may be given without waiting for the description of the Asiatic part. Out of about forty governments, 34 or 35 are allotted to Europe. The whole population, including the recent acquisitions from Turkey and Poland, has lately been estimated at 36 millions, of which number only about three millions and a half are assigned to Asia. The armies which the edict of the sovereign may raise from such a mass of people can scarcely be reduced to calculation; the standing troops of all kinds are stated at five or six hundred thousand. It was the earnest wish, or rather the ruling passion, of Peter I. to render Russia a maritime power; and it was with this view that he made himself master of the former Swedish provinces on the gulf of Finland, and founded Petersburg. But nature has opposed almost unsurmountable obstacles to this project. The few ports that Russia possesses in the Baltic are frozen up during many winter months; and it is only by a very circuitous and hazardous navigation that her ships can come round to her ports on the Black sea, and form a junction with any squadron fitted out from thence. The Caspian is still more remote from the centre of her power; and is, besides, a sea utterly unfit for vessels of force. Russia, however, by great exertions, has created a respectable navy in the Baltic; and her flag is now seen in the Black sea in sufficient strength to give uneasiness to the Ottoman Porte.

The Russians are naturally little addicted to a seafaring life, and their commercial navy is inconsiderable. The exportation of

the country is chiefly carried on in foreign bottoms. The principal articles of export are corn, iron, timber, tar and pitch, hemp, flax, potash, tallow, wax, isinglass, raw and dressed skins, and manufactured linen. Many of these articles come down from great distances in the interior country, their carriage being facilitated by the system of water communication, which is more extensive in the Russian empire than in any other, that of China, perhaps, excepted. By means of the canal of Vishnei-Woloshok, which unites the Tvertza running into the Volga, with the Shlina, communicating by other rivers with the lake Ladoga, and thence with the Neva, goods may be conveyed without landing from Astrakan to Petersburg, a distance of 1434 miles, or from the Caspian to the Baltic. By means of rivers alone they may be conveyed from the frontiers of China to Petersburg, with the interruption of only about 60 miles: this conveyance, indeed, is extremely tedious. Russia has many manufactures of her own for common consumption, but articles of luxury are for the most part imported from other countries.

Of the cities in Russia, the first place in point of population and extent is due to Moscow, the ancient capital. It has a central and pleasant situation, upon a river which runs into the Volga; and, though deserted by the court, is still the favourite residence of the old Russian nobility. Moscow occupies a vast compass of ground, being built in the open straggling Asiatic manner, and presents a singular mixture of mean wooden huts with spacious palaces and public edifices. It has a great number of churches, the gilded spires and domes of which afford a very striking and splendid prospect on the approach. Its population is stated at about 250,000.

St. Petersburg, the wonderful creation of Peter the Great, is situated on marshy ground where the Neva issues into the gulf of Finland, near the 60th degree of N. latitude. The maritime passion alone could have induced the czar to found a new capital for his empire in a place destitute of every natural advantage, under a rigorous climate, and remote from all the best parts of his dominions. It has, however, continued to be

the imperial residence, and the seat of all public business, and by vast expense and exertions has been rendered not unworthy of its high destination. Its palaces and public edifices are built in a style of massy and solid magnificence scarcely elsewhere to be paralleled. Its quays or embankments on the Neva are faced with blocks of granite, and seem calculated for perpetual duration. The city may be said to be yet in its infancy, as the great outline of its plan is very imperfectly filled; nor does its population, computed at 170000, yet place it among the first-rate capitals of Europe. Its streets present an extraordinary and amusing spectacle of natives of the numerous nations and races composing this vast empire, as well as of foreigners from various countries of Europe, distinguished by their several habits and manners. The port of Petersburg is frequented by a great number of trading vessels, especially from Great Britain, whose merchants occupy one of the best built streets in the city, and live in great credit. Large ships cannot get over the bar of the Neva, but remain at Cronstadt, a port in the gulf, twenty miles below which is also the station of the men of war. Petersburg possesses all the accommodations and amusements of a luxurious metropolis, and its court is surpassed by none in Europe in splendour and expense. It has an academy of sciences, which has published many valuable memoirs; but its principal members are foreigners.

The next important place in a commercial view is Riga, the capital of Livonia. Its harbour is greatly frequented by foreign merchants, who export from it large quantities of naval stores, grain, and other products of the country. Archangel, the most northerly harbour on the European continent, notwithstanding the short period of the year in which it is accessible, carries on a considerable trade in the export and import for that part of the Russian dominions. Very large ships built of fir and larch at a great distance up the Dwina, are among its exported articles. At the opposite extremity of the empire, on the Black sea, ports have been formed in the Crimea and the adjacent territory, which are beginning to rise to consequence: of these are Cherson, Kaffa, Sebastopol, and Odessa. The latter is

said at present to be the most flourishing, particularly in the commerce of grain to the Mediterranean.

The cities in the interior of Russia will not bear a comparison with those in the more civilized countries of Europe, either in buildings or population. In general, however, improvement is taking place, and agriculture, commerce, manufactures, and population are upon the increase. No country is more secure against foreign foes ; it has no colonial drains ; and its resources are too great to be lastingly injured by distant wars. Russia can scarcely fail of being the future mistress of the north.



## POLAND.

**ALTHOUGH** the modern political system of Europe has expunged the name of Poland from the catalogue of separate and independent sovereignties, yet the permanent marks of distinct language, manners, and face of country, still give it existence in a geographical view, and serve to discriminate its lacerated portions from the other parts of the dominions of those powers which have shared it among them. It may be added that Poland is too frequently met with in the pages of history to admit of its being consigned to oblivion.

By Poland then we understand that large tract of country, which has for its northern boundary the Baltic sea eastwards from Pomerania, and the gulf and province of Livonia; to the east it is separated from European Russia partly by an indistinct line, and partly by the river Dnieper; to the south from Little Tatar by some small streams; from Moldavia chiefly by the river Dniester; from Hungary by a chain of mountains; and to the west, by no marked boundaries, from Germany. It lies chiefly between the 48th and 57th degrees of latitude, an extent of above 600 miles. Its average breadth is about the same.

The general face of the country in Poland is remarkably level, its only mountainous tract being that bordering on the Carpathian chain, from which branches extend into the neighbouring districts. Other parts are diversified with hill and dale; but vast plains frequently occur, stretching beyond the reach of sight, and presenting continual ranges of thick forest, blackening the distant horizon. These forests particularly characterize the great dutchy of Lithuania, an extensive country on the north-east of Poland Proper, and formerly united with it by a federal league under a common sovereign.

The principal rivers of Poland are, the Warta, flowing parallel to the Silesian border, and at length uniting with the Oder in Germany: the Vistula or Wisla, rising in the Carpathian mountains, and after visiting in a long course the towns of Cracow, Warsaw, and Thorn, discharging its waters into the Baltic sea below the port of Dantzic: the Bug, a tributary to the Vistula from the middle of Poland: the Pregel washing the city of Konigsberg: the Przypiec, running through the centre of Poland in an opposite direction to the Bug, and joining the Dnieper on the Russian border. The Memel, Dnieper, Bog, and Dniester, are already mentioned among the Russian rivers.

Lakes are numerous in the north-eastern part of Lithuania and in Prussia. The sea-coast of the latter district is remarkable for two inlets of the sea, spreading into extensive but shallow sheets of water, and fenced from the waves of the Baltic by long narrow slips of land. These are named the Frische and the Curische Haf, the latter word being a technical name for such salt-water lakes.

The climate of Poland does not materially differ from that of Russia under similar latitudes. In the north the winters are rigorous, and the ports and sea-lakes are hard frozen. The south experiences a great degree of summer heat. The soil in such an extent is, of course, very various. Toward the coast of the Baltic it is generally shallow and sandy; but the profusion of wood, with which so much of Poland is overrun, indicates a prevalent strong and rich soil; and those parts in which agriculture has been favoured, are so productive as to become the chief granary of the north. The pastures of the southern parts feed cattle of great size. A large and ferocious breed of the ox, called the urus, runs wild in the forests of Lithuania, which also afford many other wild animals, such as the bear, the boar, the wolf, and the lynx.

The mineral products of Poland are scanty, as might be expected from the general flatness of the country. The tract bordering upon the Carpathian chain contains mines of copper, iron, and lead. At the extremity of a branch of these mountains, near Cracow, are the most extensive mines of rock-salt

in Europe. They are wrought under ground to a vast depth and compass, presenting spacious chambers, long galleries, massy pillars, and even whole edifices hewn in the solid rock, which, when illuminated by lamps, afford scenes of extraordinary splendour, from the reflection of the saline crystals. Another mineral product which Poland yields in greater abundance than any other known country, is amber. This fine bitumen is dug up from a considerable depth in the earth on the shore of the Baltic, especially on a neck of land formed by the Frische-Haf: it appears in lumps of different sizes, and affords an object of commerce, as a material for works of ornament and curiosity.

The human race in Poland is supposed to be of Tatarian origin, and has an Asiatic resemblance. The Poles are a people of lively appearance and manners. Those of the higher class possess considerable elegance of form and demeanour. They are accounted active, brave, and enterprising, but rash and unsteady. The peasantry have been so debased by servitude, that they are only remarkable for fawning submissiveness. The language is the Slavonic, probably in greater purity than the Russian dialect, abounding more in consonants, and more difficult of pronunciation. It is copious and energetic, and has been cultivated by native writers; but as it is so little fitted for learned purposes, or communication with foreigners, the Latin language is of general use among persons of education, and is often spoken by innkeepers and others of the middle class. Jews are very numerous in Poland, and occupy most of the situations in the inland towns in which buying and selling are concerned.

The government of Poland, whilst it subsisted as an independent country, was a republic with an elective king at its head. The republican part consisted in an aristocracy of nobles, in whom all the civil authority was vested; the inhabitants of towns being without any share in the administration, and the peasantry mere vassals attached to the soil. Endless factions were the result of this ill-balanced constitution, which were aggravated by religious dissensions. The majority of the nation were catholics; but the separatists of the Greek church, and of

different sects of protestants, were numerous, and perpetual contests arose from the intolerant spirit of the establishment on one hand and the resentment and struggles for equality of the dissidents on the other. The sword was frequently drawn, foreign potentates were called in on each side, and the Poles became accustomed to look beyond their own country for protectors. The elections to the crown were effected under the influence of foreign arms or foreign money; and Poland fell from her rank among nations. At length three neighbouring powers, Austria, Russia, and Prussia, who had long interfered in her concerns, began, in the sight of all Europe, to appropriate to themselves portions of the country which lay contiguous to their own dominions. Finding their usurpations unresisted, they were encouraged to extend them; and finally they were not ashamed to divide the whole among themselves, and entirely abolish the kingdom of Poland, once regarded as the firmest bulwark of christendom against the arms of the Turks. This last transaction took place in 1794. Stanislaus, the last king of Poland, died a pensioner in Russia.

The loss of a constitution that doomed the mass of the nation to abject slavery, and the rest to anarchy and civil war, was little to be regretted; but the barefaced injustice of the act excited the ineffectual indignation of the rest of Europe. The friends of liberty particularly lamented that a new and greatly improved constitution, in which king and people concurred, was not permitted to be tried, but was expunged in the blood of its valiant supporters.

It now remains to take a view of the country in its present partitioned state.

The RUSSIAN part of the spoils has already been in a general way reckoned into the territories of that empire. In point of extent it surpasses either of the other shares. It consists of all the great duchy of Lithuania, and the provinces which lie between the rivers Bug and Dniester, and the former Russian border; a country particularly valuable to Russia, as augmenting its European territories in those latitudes which enjoy the most favourable climate. Like the rest of Poland it bears all the

marks of poverty and neglect, but is capable of being rendered a very productive country. It is reckoned to contain near five millions and a half of inhabitants. The towns are not considerable either for commerce or population. Wilna, the ancient capital of Lithuania, is the principal: it is the seat of an university, which the Russian government is taking laudable measures to render respectable.

AUSTRIA has obtained for her share the tract consisting of Galicia and Lodomiria, with some other districts, now forming the province of Galicia and the Buckovine. This tract extends along the northern frontier of Hungary and Transylvania, and internally as far as the southern bank of the Bug. It is partly a mountainous and mineral country, but chiefly a plain, overrun with forests, and poorly peopled and cultivated, though capable of producing abundance of grain. The famous salt mines of Wielitzka, near Cracow, are comprehended in this division, and contribute greatly to its value. Among the towns of Austrian Poland are Lemberg, or Leopold, a place of considerable population, and Cracow, the ancient metropolis of the kingdom. The latter presents some appearances of former splendour amid ruin and desolation.

PRUSSIA Proper, or Ducal, though geographically included in Poland, has long been in the possession of the electoral house of Brandenburg, to which, in 1701, it gave the regal title. The annexation of Polish Prussia with the whole country on the shore of the Baltic, almost to the borders of Courland, and to a considerable extent inland, has rendered the dominions of the king of Prussia on this side a compact mass, equal in consequence to the sum of all his other territories. Though upon the whole, one of the least fertile tracts in Poland, it produces grain sufficient for a large exportation; while the possession of the sea-coast gives the command of all the foreign commerce of the country. The capital of Prussia Proper is Konigsberg, a populous city near the sea, the seat of an university, and carrying on a considerable traffic. More distinguished for its commerce is Dantzic, once an independent state, and the head of

the commercial confederacy called the Hanseatic League. Its subjection to the Prussian dominion has diminished its consequence ; but it is still the chief place of export for the corn and other commodities of Poland. These, and the other coast towns, in their language and customs are rather German than Polish. To the share of Prussia has also fallen the late capital of Poland, Warsaw. This city, agreeably situated on the Vistula, is of moderate size, and contains many buildings worthy of a royal residence, but intermixed with those appearances of poverty and meanness, which announced the declining prosperity of the country before the loss of its separate existence.

## GERMANY.

**THIS** large and important portion of Europe is divided among such a number of sovereigns, native and foreign, and is so obscurely marked by natural boundaries, that it is a difficult task to describe it as a single country. Yet in point of name, language and inhabitants, it possesses an unity of character which well entitles it to occupy a separate place among the territorial divisions of this part of the globe ; and although its extreme limits are not easily ascertained, the great mass of which it is composed is sufficiently identified.

Germany, in a general view, is that country which lies between Scandinavia and the German ocean on the north, the Alps on the south, France on the west, and Poland and Hungary on the east.

In ancient times the Rhine was reckoned the boundary between Germany and Gaul ; and modern France has lately renewed that limit, although several districts on the western side of that river retain the German language and manners. After the Rhine has reached the border of the Dutch provinces, an indistinct line between them and Germany runs northward to the mouth of the Ems ; from which point the ocean takes up the northern boundary, only interrupted by the Danish peninsula, which commences beyond the dutchy of Holstein. The German coast of the Baltic then succeeds, terminating with the extreme point of Pomerania. The eastern boundary thence commencing, is reckoned to leave on the German side, Brandenburg, Silesia, Moravia, the Austrias, and Carniola, down to the gulf of Venice. But this line is rendered indistinct by the mixture of the Sclavonian with the German tongue and manners, and the extension of the Prussian and Austrian sovereignties into the lately obliterated country of Poland. The states of Venice then carry on the southern or Italian boundary as far

as the country of the Grisons. This country, with Switzerland, constitutes the district called Helvetia, which has formerly been included in Germany, and still, by its manners and language, attests a close affinity with it. If considered as a distinct country, the northern limit of Helvetia is the southern limit of Germany, to the borders of the French territory.

Germany lies chiefly between the 46th and 54th degrees of N. latitude, but projects somewhat further at both extremities. Its greatest length may be reckoned 600 miles, and breadth 500. Placed about the centre of the temperate zone, it possesses in general a temperature between the extremes of heat and cold. The Romans, indeed, who viewed it from Italy, regarded its climate as rigorously cold; and in fact its contiguity to the vast tract of north-eastern continent renders its winters, even in the southern parts, very severe.

The northern part of Germany is mostly a low country, extending in wide sandy plains, and marshy tracts accompanying the course of the large rivers which enter the sea on that side. The first mountains that occur on proceeding southwards are the Hartz, in the territory of Hanover, famous for their mineral products. South-east of these are situated the mountains of Hesse; and other scattered ridges succeed toward the Rhine and Mayn. The angle lying between the upper part of the Rhine and Switzerland, and comprehending the district called the Black Forest, may be regarded throughout as a mountainous tract. This hilly country also extends some way along the course of the infant Danube. On the eastern side of Germany, the whole kingdom of Bohemia is encircled with a mountainous chain, which, on the east, sends off branches to Moravia, communicating with the Carpathian mountains of Hungary. Southwards across the Danube occur the mountains of Carinthia, which have to the west the lofty Rhetian or Tyrolese Alps, scarcely yielding in height to those of Switzerland, with which they are connected.

Germany is watered by numerous rivers, some of them among the most considerable in Europe. Of these may be first mentioned the Rhine, although neither its source nor exit is contained in the modern Germany. Springing from several



heads in the country of the Grisons and Switzerland, it quits the latter country at Basil, and for a long space forms the boundary between the French and German territories. It then strikes off through the Netherlands, and at length, "losing its majestic force in Belgian plains," and drained by numerous branches and channels, scarcely struggles to the sea in an inconsiderable stream below Leyden. Regarding, however, the Waal and the Leck as its main streams, it enters the sea with sufficient dignity below Rotterdam. By means of these channels it affords a noble inland navigation from Holland quite to the border of Switzerland, through a well-peopled and striking tract of country. The Rhine receives numerous rivers from the western side of Germany, of which the Mayn and the Neckar are the principal.

Of the rivers that enter the German ocean the first, beginning from the west, is the Ems, which gives a port to the town of Embden. Next succeeds the Weser, a river of much longer course, which unites several streams of the north-west, and joins the sea below Bremen. The Elbe, one of the largest of the German rivers, augmented by a great conflux of streams from the central districts, flows by the famous commercial city of Hamburg, and thence in a broad channel is discharged into the German ocean on the western side of Holstein. On the eastern side of that dutchy the principal of the rivers which discharge their waters into the Baltic is the Oder, deriving its source from the distant foot of the Carpathian mountains.

The southern part of Germany is traversed from west to east by the Danube. This mighty river, taking its rise from the mountains of the Black Forest in Swabia, soon becomes a copious and navigable stream, and receives continual accessions on both banks, till, augmented by all the waters of Upper Germany, it reaches Vienna. At a short distance from that capital it becomes a Hungarian river, and visits a variety of provinces in its majestic course, till at length it finds a remote termination in the Black sea, under the Turkish dominion.

Germany does not abound in lakes. To the north the principal are those in the dutchy of Mecklenburg. The large lake of Constance, or the Bodensee, belongs partly to Germany,

partly to Switzerland. Upper Bavaria and Austria contain several lakes in the bosoms of their hills, but of no considerable magnitude.

Of the forests by which Germany was in ancient times so much overspread, there are now only detached remains. The most extensive is the Black Forest, occupying a wide rugged district near the Upper Rhine. The Hartz mountains and the country of Thuringia are thickly wooded; and in many parts of the middle and south of Germany there are extensive woods, which the passion for the chase, so prevalent among the petty sovereigns of the country, has preserved from the inroads of cultivation.

The extent of Germany affords a sufficient diversity of soil and climate to admit of considerable variety in its vegetable products. In general, however, they are those of the middle and northern temperate regions, and wine is almost the only article which assimilates it with the south of Europe. The wine country begins about the junction of the Neckar with the Rhine, and accompanies those rivers towards their rise. The lofty and romantic banks of the latter, about Manheim and Heidelberg, and in the district called the Rheingau, are clothed with vineyards, the produce of which is in high repute; though a tendency to acidity in the Rhenish wines testifies a deficiency of solar influence for the full perfection of that liquor. Austria also affords wine, some of which is of excellent quality. The northern part of Germany, from its sandy soil, yields scanty harvests, and chiefly of the inferior kinds of grain: it is, however, favourable to turnips and green crops. Great quantities of flax are grown in Silesia and the neighbouring countries. Many of the districts of the middle and south of Germany are very fertile, and yield in abundance the most valuable objects of cultivation.

Of the animals of Germany there is little remarkable to be observed. Among the beasts of the chase to which its forests give shelter, the wild-boar is a frequent inmate, reared to a large bulk by the plenty of mast falling from the oaks with which they abound. Westphalia is particularly noted for this species of game. In the more mountainous parts the lynx har-

bours ; and wolves haunt the recesses of the Tyrolese Alps, and the other wild regions of the southern border.

Germany is rich in minerals. The Erzegeberg, or chain of hills between Saxony and Bohemia, yield silver, copper, tin, lead, iron, cobalt, bismuth, and various rare and valuable earths. Those of the Hartz, in the Hanoverian territories, afford most of the above-mentioned products. The mountains of Hesse are also metallic, though their mines are less celebrated than the preceding. Bavaria has mines of silver, copper, and lead, and is noted for its salt-springs. The dutchy of Wurtemberg possesses silver, copper, and iron ; and the mountains of the Black Forest contain various minerals. Saltzburg, probably, takes its name from its salt-mines, which are a great source of profit ; it is also enriched by metals, and even yields a moderate quantity of gold. The lower mountains of the Tyrolese Alps are metallic ; and among their products are reckoned gold, silver, and quicksilver. Silesia, Bohemia, and Moravia, contain a variety of mineral treasures in their mountains. The same quality pervades the mountains of Carniola, Carinthia, and Stiria. The iron of the two last countries is particularly famous as convertible to the finest steel. The quicksilver mines of Idria are of great fame, and yield large quantities of that rare and valuable product. Their romantic scenery and deep excavations have called forth the descriptive powers, and exercise the imagination, of writers in poetry and romance.

The German people were considered as indigenous by the ancients, and from early times have borne a high character for bravery and the masculine qualities of the mind. They are in general frank and open, but inclined to be boastful and boisterous. In point of understanding they have usually been reckoned better adapted to exertions of industry and judgment, than to the play of the fancy, or the refinements of delicacy. Many of their late productions, however, display much feeling, and considerable force of imagination ; but seldom under the direction of good taste. They have contributed their full share to solid erudition, and also to those inventions of mechanical ingenuity which are so serviceable to the arts of life. They are indefatigable in their pursuits, and engage in them with a

seriousness and sense of importance which not unfrequently lead them to laborious trifling.

The German language is one of the numerous descendants of the Teutonic. It is strong and copious, but rough in the sound, and involved in the syntax. It is spoken with the greatest purity and elegance in Saxony and the vicinity: the southern dialects are harsh and uncouth. The valuable works which have of late years been written in this language have caused it to be much more studied than formerly by foreigners, and it has nearly acquired the rank of one of the classical dialects of Europe.

Germany was the principal seat of the reformation of religion in the 16th and 17th centuries, and was a fruitful mother of new sects and opinions. The long religious wars terminated in a kind of partition between popery and protestantism, of which the former retained the chief possession of the south, while the latter, in its two leading forms of Lutheranism and Calvinism, almost exclusively reigned in the north. Both were professed with the zeal and steadfastness inhering in the national character, and very little change in their several limits has taken place since the first partition. The different effects of the two religions have, however, become very conspicuous; for in point of learning and general information, as well as of industry and activity of every kind, the protestant states are, without comparison, superior to the catholic.

The political constitution of Germany is more intricate than that of any other European country. The territory is divided into a vast number of independent sovereignties, extremely disproportionate in extent and consequence, but all united into a kind of federal republic, having for its head an elective emperor. This election, at a vacancy, is made by a few of the principal sovereigns, named electors, in whom the right is hereditary. The great diet of the empire is composed of delegates from all the independent states, and it is their office to determine upon matters concerning the common body. They can raise an army of the empire, composed of a certain quota from each state, and direct it against any refractory members. It is unnecessary to enter into further particulars relative to a constitu-

tion which has lost all its vigour, and now subsists only in name. The great preponderance of the house of Austria, in consequence of its large hereditary dominions, has long secured the imperial dignity to its representatives, and rendered the election little more than a form. It would probably have overwhelmed most of the lesser sovereignties, had not the house of Brandenburg, by the acquisition of the throne of Prussia, and by various accessions of territory procured by the sword, formed another centre of power capable of balancing that of Austria.

These two are at present the arbiters of Germany; Austria being at the head of the catholic interest; Prussia of the protestant. There are still, however, many princes respectable for the population and wealth of their dominions, who maintain a degree of consideration in the Germanic system, although unable to act independently. Of these the principal are the electors of Saxony, Bavaria, Hanover, and Hesse, and the duke of Wurtemberg. The ecclesiastical states were formerly important, but the conquests and overbearing influence of France have reduced some of the principal to insignificance. The smaller states, and the independent cities termed imperial, now hold their separate existence by a very frail tenure, amid powerful and ambitious neighbours, who are likely, by war or mutual agreement (as in the case of Poland) to consolidate them with their own dominions.

We shall now take a separate view of the principal sovereignties into which Germany is divided.

**AUSTRIA.** The German territories of the house of Austria chiefly consist of the archduchy of Austria, with Stiria, Carinthia, Tyrol, and Carniola; the kingdom of Bohemia with Moravia; a small portion of Silesia; and considerable districts in Suabia. Much of this country is mountainous, abounding in picturesque views and romantic situations. The climate, except in the alpine tracts, is mild and agreeable; even in the northern provinces there is warmth enough to ripen the grape. The soil is productive, and where agriculture is practised with due attention, its labours are amply repaid. The mineral wealth of these districts has already been touched upon. Were not the

lower orders so much oppressed (as usual throughout Germany) the natural advantages of the Austrian dominions could not fail of producing general prosperity.

The capital, and the imperial residence, is Vienna, in Austria Proper, seated on the Danube ; a large and populous city, chiefly inhabited by the nobility and attendants on court, persons in public offices, and those who administer to the usual wants and luxuries of a metropolis. It has an university, but the restrictions upon free enquiry inseparable from civil and religious despotism prevent it from rising to literary celebrity. Indeed, scarcely any capital in Europe is at present subjected to more rigorous restraints on printing and reading than Vienna ; whence its intellectual character is of a low rank. Licentious manners and gross sensuality are said greatly to prevail in it. The inhabitants are variously estimated at from 250000 to 300000. From the proportion of houses to people, it appears that they must be more crowded than in almost any other European city ; which circumstance will probably account for the very high degree of mortality observed in it. The environs are beautiful, and abound in places of public entertainment.

Prague, the capital of Bohemia, is a considerable city, chiefly remarkable for the number of its religious foundations. Its university is much frequented as a place of education for the catholic clergy. Gratz, the capital of Stiria, ranks the next in size : it has an university ; which advantage is also possessed by Inspruck, the capital of Tyrol. The other towns of the Austrian dominion are of little consequence ; for manufactures are not flourishing in this part of Germany, and its commerce chiefly depends on the native products of the soil. Bohemia (which contains a large proportion of protestants) is the most distinguished for its industry, and has many manufactories of linen, paper, glass, and other articles. The only sea-port of the south of Germany, which just touches upon the Adriatic, is Trieste, a place of considerable foreign commerce since it has been declared a free port by the Austrian government.

A general view of the strength and resources of the Austrian empire must be reserved till an account has been given of its Hungarian dominions.

**PRUSSIA.** The Prussian dominions in Germany consist of Brandenburg, part of Pomerania, almost the whole of Silesia, and a number of smaller principalities dispersed through the northern part of the country as far as the frontiers of the Netherlands. Brandenburg is the ancient possession of the house, from which it derives its electoral dignity. Its capital, and that of all the Prussian dominions, is Berlin, situated on the banks of the Spree, a river communicating with the Oder. This is a considerable city, distinguished by the beauty and regularity of its buildings, which, however, being in great part erected at the royal expense, are not inhabited suitably to their appearance. Berlin has a royal academy of sciences and belles-lettres, which has obtained reputation in the learned world by its memoirs. It possesses a silk manufactory, originally introduced by a colony of French protestants; but it is not a place of much commerce. The new built city of Potsdam, in its neighbourhood, surpasses the capital itself in architectural decoration. It has a magnificent royal palace, and in its plan and style of building bears all the tokens of a favourite residence. A royal manufactory of fine porcelain is one of its ornamental appendages. Frankfort on the Oder, in the same province, is the seat of an university. Magdeburg, the capital of the dutchy of that name, is a handsome and flourishing city. To the south of it is Halle, celebrated for its university.

In Pomerania is Stettin, a commercial town and port at the mouth of the Oder. The fertile province of Silesia, the richest of the German territories belonging to Prussia, has for its capital Breslau, a well built and commerical city, deriving opulence from the linen-trade of that province, which is one of the most flourishing manufactures in Germany. It has also a great trade in the sugar-refinery, and a share in the broad-cloth manufactory, which is followed to a large extent in several neighbouring towns.

Having already taken a view of the Polish part of the Prussian dominions, it will now be proper to consider the kingdom of Prussia collectively.

Elevated to its present rank of one of the leading powers of Europe by successive conquests, it is essentially a military state,

and can only preserve its relative consequence, surrounded as it is by states more powerful than itself, by the number and discipline of its soldiers. A succession of warlike sovereigns, among whom Frederic the Great stands conspicuous as the ablest and most fortunate monarch of his age, conferred on the Prussian arms a reputation which rendered them the dread of all the neighbouring states. Their character is now somewhat sunk in the scale ; yet no country of the same population maintains troops equally numerous and well-appointed. This necessity cannot but be injurious to its progress in wealth and internal improvement ; yet a course of prudent administration and pacific policy has in some measure remedied the evil. The soldiers are encouraged to marry, and every opportunity is given them to exercise industry compatible with their military duties. The government is absolute, but administered by fixed laws, which are generally respected. The state religion is the Calvinist : an unlimited toleration of every faith and sect however prevails, and no difference in civil rights is made between the members of different religions. Agricultural improvements are assiduously promoted. Manufactures are numerous, but few of them furnish articles for exportation. The Prussian commercial flag is now very frequently met with in the northern seas, and commands respect, although protected by no armed navy. The population of these dominions is reckoned to exceed eight millions. The revenue is considerable and improving.

**SAXONY.** The territories of the elector of Saxony consist of the dutchy of that name, of Voightland, Lusatia, part of Thuringia, of Misnia and Henneberg. These are in general fine countries, rich in products, both vegetable and mineral. The capital is Dresden, on the Elbe, a city famed for its neatness and elegance, and the pleasures of all kinds with which it abounds. Its cabinets of pictures and curiosities are the admiration of lovers of the arts, and attract many visitors. Dresden has likewise several manufactures. Its porcelain is reckoned more perfect than any other in Europe. Meissen, indeed, is the principal seat of that fabric. The environs of Dresden are very beautiful, and abound in vineyards.



Leipzig is an agreeable city of moderate size, celebrated as a centre of German literature, and known in the commercial world by its half-yearly marts or fairs, to which commodities are brought from almost every manufacturing country. Among its articles for sale are more books than are any where else brought into commerce; and a great number of German writers regularly prepare new compositions for the Leipzig fairs. Wittemberg has an university of great theological fame, as the birth-place of Lutheranism. Freyberg, in the mineral country of Saxony, is the well-adapted seat of a mineralogical school, where the science is taught in its most improved state. Weimar, the capital of an independent prince of the Saxon line, is a kind of Athens of Germany, from the number of distinguished men of letters who make it their residence.

Manufactures are carried on with great spirit and intelligence in Saxony: those of thread, lace, linen, velvet, paper, and porcelain are well known in foreign markets. These sources of wealth, together with its natural products, have rendered this electorate the most opulent country in Germany, in proportion to its extent. In point of power it is, however, only one of the subordinate states, and is politically dependant on Prussia, by whose armies it has more than once been overrun and pillaged.

HANOVER. The electorate of Brunswick-Lunenbug belongs to the royal house of Great Britain. Its capital is Hanover, a neat city, but of no great consequence. Gottingen is the seat of an university, which has latterly acquired great renown by the advantages it affords for education, and the celebrity of its professors. The most valuable products of this electorate are those of its mines in the Hartz forest. It possesses a fine breed of horses for cavalry and the draught. Its connection with the crown of England has been disadvantageous to both countries. Unable to defend itself from a powerful foe, and lying out of the reach of protection from its British sovereign, it has either been defended by expensive alliances, or has fallen a sacrifice to disputes in which it had no concern. It has lately been conquered by the French, and is at present in the possession of Prussia.

**HESSE.** The landgrave and elector of Hesse, whose capital is Cassel, possesses a territory of moderate extent and fertility, with a population of hardy and warlike subjects, from whose hire, as mercenary troops, he is accustomed to derive a considerable revenue.

**BAVARIA.** The electorate of Bavaria, now joined to the palatinate of the Rhine, constitutes the principal secondary power to the south of the river Mayn. It is now changed into a monarchy, with some accession of territory. The upper part of Bavaria is a mountainous and woody country, affording various metals and minerals. Lower Bavaria is more fertile, and richer in agricultural products. The inhabitants are chiefly catholics, and little distinguished either for literature or ingenious arts. Munich, the capital, is a small but elegant city. The Palatinate is a fine tract, abounding in vineyards, and enriched by an industrious population. The protestant religion prevails in it. Mannheim is its capital. Heidelberg, in the centre of the wine country, denotes its traffic by its celebrated tun, one of the curiosities of Germany.

**WURTEMBERG.** The dutchy of this name forms the next state in point of consequence in this part of Germany. It has lately been elevated to the rank of a kingdom, with an increase of dominion. The country is populous, and flourishes by means of its mineral and other products. Its chief towns are Stuttgart and Tübingen; the latter is one of the protestant universities.

It is common to all the sovereignties of Germany, great and small, to have assemblies of states, composed of different orders, which are images of the ancient mixed governments, and serve as some check to the monarchical power of the head. There are likewise appeals to the general body of the empire in case of oppression or abuse; yet upon the whole it cannot be said that true political liberty exists in any of the German principalities.

**IMPERIAL CITIES.** There remains another species of civil community in Germany, that of the Free or Imperial Ci-

ties, which are a kind of independent republics, governed by their own magistrates, but forming parts of the Germanic body. Many of these, by virtue of their freedom, have become wealthy and populous through commerce. The most considerable of them at present is Hamburg, situated near the mouth of the Elbe, and the principal seat of foreign commerce in Germany. Its trade is general; but it is particularly the mart for the West India products, and other commodities with which Great Britain supplies the northern parts of Germany. Its population is reckoned to amount to nearly 100000 persons, who are crowded within a small space for the sake of protection from the fortifications. The city, in its buildings and modes of living, displays many marks of opulence, but few of taste or elegance. Its environs are enlivened with the villas of the rich citizens.

Lubeck, built on an inlet from the Baltic, was formerly a maritime republic of great power and importance, but is much fallen off from its ancient splendour. Bremen, on the Weser, is rich, populous, and commercial. It has particular connections with the elector of Hanover, who possesses considerable property in it. Frankfort on the Mayn holds a high rank among the German cities for commercial opulence, united with elegance and the pleasures of cultivated society. Its fairs are not less celebrated than those of Leipzig. Nuremberg is famous for its ingenious works of minute industry, such as toys, prints, and various mechanical curiosities. Ratisbon, or Regensberg, on the Danube, is distinguished as the place for holding diets of the empire.

In the progress of annexation, which seems at present to be the system of the leading powers of Germany, it can scarcely be doubted that these rich but feeble communities will be among the first objects to tempt the hand of rapacious violence. The obnoxious example of their republican constitutions will be an additional motive for their extinction. The late invasion of Germany by the French has produced considerable alterations in some of the states of the German empire.

## HUNGARY,

WITH

TRANSYLVANIA, AND THE NEIGHBOURING PROVINCES.

**THIS** tract of country, though composing a part of the Austrian dominions, possesses sufficient geographical distinction to claim notice as a separate division of Europe. Its local circumstances have for many ages given to the greater part of it an uniform independent existence in the catalogue of nations. The exterior parts, indeed, have alternately fallen under the dominion of different masters; but a christian kingdom bordering upon a mahometan one, and strongly discriminated from it by perpetual hostility and contrasted manners, has subsisted through all the periods of modern history under the name of the Hungarian.

The boundaries of Hungary and its annexed provinces are, to the north and east, the great Carpathian chain of mountains, stretching from the borders of Moravia to the confines of Transylvania with Moldavia: from that point a branch descends in a south-westerly direction separating the rest of Transylvania and the Bannat of Temeswar from Walachia. This almost reaches the Danube, which river becomes its southern boundary till it is joined by the Save near Belgrade. The Save then separates the Austrian from the Turkish territory almost to the bounds of Croatia. Ridges of mountains and indistinct lines form the western limit, dividing Croatia and Hungary from the German provinces of Austria, up to the confines of Moravia.

The country thus circumscribed lies chiefly between the 45th and 49th degrees of N. latitude: its extent from east to west is more considerable. The districts of which it is composed are, the kingdom of Hungary, occupying all the northern and

the principal part ; Transylvania on the east ; and Croatia, Slavonia, and the Bannat on the south.

The general character of this portion of Europe is that of a low and level country, as might be inferred from the number of rivers which take their course through it. The Carpathian or Crapack mountains, however, which form its grand northern barrier, imprint upon all the tract called Upper Hungary a hilly, and in some parts an alpine, character ; which is also extended to the greater part of Transylvania. Branches from this ridge run southwards in several parts, usually accompanied with mineral treasures, which will in the sequel be particularized.

The great river Danube is one of the leading features of this country, to all the waters of which it gives a discharge. It enters Hungary a little to the east of Vienna, and soon washes the walls of Presburg its modern, and of Buda its ancient capital. Somewhat above the latter city it turns short to the south, and penetrates quite through Hungary to the borders of Slavonia. Then compelled to a new direction by the influx of the Drave, coming from Carinthia, it turns again to the east. The junction of the Theiss, which crosses all Hungary from the north, again gives it a southern direction ; but the Save, coming in soon after from the west, renews its eastern course, which it holds till it enters the Turkish dominions. The tributary rivers above mentioned unite almost all the other streams of these regions, and transmit them to the grand trunk of the Danube.

Hungary has two considerable lakes ; the Platen-See, and the Neusidler, both on its western side, south of the Danube. They are accompanied with morasses and marshes, which are also frequent in the tracts of the great rivers.

In climate Hungary approaches to the southern countries of Europe, although its inland situation exposes it to severe cold in the winter, by which its rivers are often frozen up. Its summer heats are very considerable, and often productive of those diseases which so generally attend high degrees of warmth accompanied with the effluvia of marshes and stagnant waters.

All the rivers, except the Danube, are said to become fœtid in the hot season.

Hungary abounds in pastures, which are accounted poor, probably through overstocking or neglect; for the soil can scarcely fail of being rich in a country so well watered. The abundance of its products, indeed, proves that there can be no defect of natural fertility. The hills in Upper Hungary, sheltered to the north by the Carpathian ridge, are favourable to the growth of vines. The wine made in the district about Tokay is of high repute for richness and strength, and is reserved for the luxury of the superior classes throughout Europe. Other parts of Hungary, as well as Transylvania and Croatia, are also productive of wine. The neglect of agriculture has left large tracts overspread with wood, which are stocked with wild animals of various species. The spacious pastures feed numerous herds of horned cattle. Horses are reared in great numbers; but for want of due attention the breed is small. The sheep have generally long spiral horns and hairy fleeces. The rivers abound in fish of the larger kinds.

Thus plentifully supplied as these countries are with the wealth of the surface of the earth, they also largely share in the riches contained in its bowels. The mines of the northern part of Hungary and Transylvania are the most considerable in the Austrian dominions. At Kremnitz are mines of gold and silver. Shemnitz has valuable mines of the latter metal; and the whole circumjacent country is mineral, yielding copper, antimony, coal, salt, and alum. That beautiful gem, the true opal, is a peculiar product of this part of Hungary, and is found in no other country. The mines of Nayag in Transylvania are rich in gold, together with various other metals. Gold is found in several other parts of that province; and valuable minerals of different kinds accompany the branches which descend from the Carpathian chain into the Bannat. In copper, Hungary and its provinces are accounted richer than any other European country. Its iron mines are inexhaustible; and it would be capable of supplying all the Austrian empire with salt, were it not too distant for carriage. Mineral waters, the usual attendants on metallic ores, are frequent in Hungary. The art of mining

and the processes belonging to metals are conducted with much intelligence in these countries ; and a mineralogical school, inferior only to that of Freyberg in Saxony, is established at Shemnitz.

The people inhabiting Hungary and the connected provinces are various in their derivation and language. The original Hungarians, descended from the ancient Magiars or Ugurs, chiefly inhabit the flat country, and are averse to residence in towns. They speak a dialect approaching to the Finnish. The most numerous are the people of Sclavonian blood and language, who are divided into different tribes and dialects under the several names of Slaves, Slowacks, Rascians, and Croats. The Germans and Transylvanians at the foot of the Carpathian mountains were colonists introduced for the purpose of working the mines. They retain the German language, and generally profess the Lutheran religion. The commerce of the country is chiefly in the hands of Rascians, Greeks, and Jews, the latter of whom are numerous. The national farms are mostly held by Armenians, who also are the keepers of inns and coffee-houses. Many zigeuner or gipsies wander about the country in their usual disorderly mode of living. A remarkable species of population is that of a line of husbandmen on the frontier from the Save to the Danube, regimented and trained to arms, who form a kind of living barrier against inroads from the border banditti under the Turkish dominion.

The Hungarians of Sclavonian race are a martial and spirited people, inured to war by their proximity to a natural foe, and accustomed to the assertion of their national privileges against the tyranny and usurpation of their Austrian sovereigns.

The government is a monarchy, formerly elective, like that of Poland, but now hereditary in the house of Austria. The states of the kingdom are a kind of aristocratic senate, constitutionally possessed of considerable powers, but ill secured from the force or influence of the monarch.

The nobility are very numerous, and possessed all the oppressive authority over the peasantry common to the feudal

countries, till it was abridged by the late emperors Joseph and Leopold.

The established religion of Hungary is the Roman catholic ; but the members of the Greek and Lutheran churches are numerous, and enjoy a toleration.

Manufactures do not flourish in this country, and the foreign commerce consists chiefly in the products of the soil and mines.

Great numbers of the Hungarian gentry serve in the Austrian army, and form the most esteemed part of the cavalry. The Croats and other borderers are well known as the irregular troops and pillagers in that service.

The present capital of Hungary is Presburg or Posen, a city of small magnitude, finely situated on the Danube. Buda, or Offen, the ancient capital, is larger and more populous than Presburg, if Pest, on the opposite bank of the Danube, be included. The latter place is the seat of the only university in Hungary. Several other towns, indeed, possess public schools or colleges ; but instruction is in a low state in this country, and its literary reputation is small. The mining towns Kremnitz and Shemnitz are visited by curious travellers, on account of the employments of the inhabitants. Hermanstadt, the capital of Transylvania, is the chief seat of the Saxon colony of that province.

The population of Hungary and its dependencies is estimated at upwards of 7700000. This kingdom, and the German territories of Austria, constitute the great mass of the power of that house. Its other possessions, consisting of the former Venetian territory in Italy, and of Dalmatia, are only small portions of countries which will hereafter be treated of separately. The present will therefore be the fittest occasion to give a summary view of this powerful empire. It should be premised, that since the present ruler of France has assumed the dignity of an hereditary emperor, the head of the house of Austria, before only the elected emperor of Germany, has chosen to constitute himself also an hereditary emperor over his own proper dominions.

The loss of the Catholic Netherlands, though inadequately compensated by the acquisition of the states of Venice, has



given a compactness to the Austrian dominions which they before wanted, and has cut off a frequent cause of wars and civil dissensions; so that this empire has rather been a gainer by the exchange. Its possessions, in point of extent and value of territory, rank among the most considerable under an European potentate, and their population is fully proportional. By the latest estimates the inhabitants of the whole, exclusive of the Venetian territory, amount to a little more than twenty millions. Of these many are among the bravest and most robust nations of Europe; and no modern military establishment, till the late prodigious exertions of the French, could vie with the Austrian in the number and excellence of the troops.

The revenues are considerable; but the total want of naval power, and a degree of narrowness in the system of government, are unfavourable to commercial prosperity, on which modern wealth so much depends. The weight of Austria in the European scale cannot fail to be great; and though powerfully checked by France on one side, and Russia and Prussia on another, she has full scope for future aggrandizement on the side of Turkey.

## SWITZERLAND.

IN all ages of the world it has been seen that certain small states have secured to themselves a place in the catalogue of nations by their eminence in arts or arms, or by peculiar circumstances of their policy, which they could not have claimed from the extent or opulence of their territory. In modern Europe Switzerland is a remarkable example of this fact. Possessed of a small and rugged tract of country, without foreign commerce, with little distinction from science, art, or literature, the Swiss have made themselves known and respected chiefly by their spirited acquisition and resolute defence of independence and civil liberty.

The ancient Helvetia, on account of its position with respect to the Rhine, was by the Romans reckoned a part of Gaul. Modern Switzerland, with the country of the Grisons, in language and manners may rather be considered as appertaining to Germany. Its chief political connections have been with the house of Austria, from the tyrannical dominion of which it broke off when it asserted its independence. Nature befriended this country in its claim to a separate existence; for though its boundaries on the German side are not precisely defined by natural limits, yet on the whole it possesses a strongly-marked local character, being a region overspread with mountainous ridges, presenting formidable barriers against an invader, and calculated to breed a hardy race of people, suited to the defence of their "rocky ramparts."

Switzerland, including under this denomination the country of the Grisons, and all the dependant districts of both, is bounded on the north and north-east by Germany, on the south and south-east by Italy, on the west by France. It lies chiefly between latitudes  $45^{\circ} 50'$  and  $47^{\circ} 40'$ . Its extent from north to south is about 130 English miles, from east to west, about 200.

The face of country within this compass is by no means uniform ; for the northern and western parts have considerable level tracts, while the southern and eastern, comprehending the greater portion of the whole, consist almost entirely of branches of the Alps, with the interposition of narrow valleys. The celebrated mountainous chain which constitutes the Alps properly so called, extends in a wide semicircle round the northern boundary of Italy, from the gulf of Genoa to the Adriatic. The Swiss Alps are the northern part of this chain. They run for the most part in parallel ridges from south-east to north-west, interrupted in various places, and sending off shoots in different directions. In some parts they rise to very lofty summits, though not equal to the highest of Savoy. They are throughout of a rocky nature, commonly naked and spiry about the summit, with a middle girdle of green pasture, and clothed at the base with woods of fir. From a distance they seem to form detached pyramids, but on approach they are seen to be composed of ridges, of which some parts are more elevated than others. Even the interjacent valleys are often very high ground, and bear the rugged mountainous character. An extensive chain of hills, which, though they would elsewhere be regarded as lofty, are tame and humble compared to the Alps, is the Jura forming part of the fence to Switzerland on the French border.

In the bosom of the Alpine region are formed numerous lakes, the reservoirs of the waters collected from the atmosphere by the attraction of the mountains. These are clear and deep ; and, by the contrast of their smooth bright surface with the rude rocks and gloomy woods with which they are usually environed, afford scenes of exquisite beauty and picturesque effect. The most considerable of the lakes are those of Constance, on the borders of Germany, the most extensive of all ; of Geneva, called the Lemman lake, the next in size, and the first in fame, spread out between Switzerland and Savoy, in a rich country distant from the Alps ; part of the lakes of Locarno and Lugano, which rather belong to Italy ; the lakes of Zurich, Lucerne, Thun, Brienz, and Neufchatel, chiefly embosomed in the mountains. There are many more which would excite notice in a country less fertile in the beauties of nature. The glaciers,

or ice valleys, subjacent to some of the highest summits, and affording the resemblance of an agitated sea suddenly fixed by the power of frost, may be ranked among the watery reservoirs of this country. An icy crust clothes some of the loftiest pinnacles, and descends their sides, giving the appearance of eternal snow ; while the fresh accumulations of winter's snows lodging in the cavities, afford perpetual supplies to summer rills and torrents.

Of the springs of his native country the illustrious Haller says, " I never recollect out of Switzerland to have seen those limpid and truly crystalline waters which gush, unpolluted by any earth, strained through the pure flints of our rocks." From these, and the sources above mentioned, rivers are generated for the supply of a great portion of Europe. The Rhine has its principal head in a glacier among the Alps of the Grisons : this infant stream is joined by two others springing from the Swiss Alps ; after which it takes its course along the eastern side of the Grison country, till it mingles its waters with those of the lake of Constance. It issues again from the western side of that lake, and, coasting the northern border of Switzerland, at length leaves the country at Basil, and turns into Germany. During its course through these regions it never lays aside a kind of savage character, leaping down cataracts, and hurrying through rapids, so as to be little fitted for the purposes of navigation.

The Rhone, rising not far from one of the Swiss sources of the Rhine, takes an opposite direction, and, flowing in a western course through the rich valley of the Valais, pours its waters into the Lemman lake. Soon after its outlet at the opposite end of the lake, it changes its country, and becomes a French river.

The springs of the Aar, a river confined to Switzerland, are among its loftiest central Alps. In its course it passes through the lakes of Brienz and Thun, and then, washing the city of Bern, takes a winding way to unite with the Rhine on the northern border of Switzerland. The Reuss from the lake of Lucerne, and the Limmat from that of Zurich, join it before it is lost in the Rhine. The Inn, a considerable tributary to the Danube ; and the Adda, which swells the stream of the Po, both

rise in the Grison country. Thus the Helvetian waters are conveyed to the German sea, the Mediterranean, the Adriatic, and the Euxine.

Although no country in Europe affords more in its scenery to delight and astonish the lover of nature than Switzerland, yet it is in many respects unfavourable to the comfort and enjoyment of the settled inhabitant. Its climate is extremely unequal, and subject to sudden and violent changes. A region of lofty mountains is necessarily a nursery of storms and tempests; and the general elevation of the land exposes it to rigorous cold and protracted winter, contrasted with the summer heat of a southern latitude, often locally augmented by the reverberation of the solar rays, and the stagnation of air in narrow inclosed valleys. The soil of the Alpine tracts is stony and meagre, and the plains and dales among the hills are generally boggy. There are, indeed, in the lower and more level parts of the country, tracts of fertile land, adapted to every agricultural purpose; but, for the most part, valuable products are obtained only at the expense of great exertions of skill and labour.

Switzerland in general is a country of pasturage; its most elevated plains affording food to the herds of cattle during the midst of summer, while the lower meadows yield plentiful crops of excellent hay. The natural products of the vegetable kingdom in this country are remarkably numerous and varied, and its wild and medicinal plants are supposed to possess a superior degree of virtue and fragrance. The Flora, or vegetable catalogue, of Switzerland, is one of the most copious in Europe; for, while the highest summits produce the plants of Lapland or Spitzbergen, the sheltered vales give birth to those of Spain and Italy. So near to each other in some parts are these different sites, that Haller has given an instance where, within half a day's journey, the botanist may gather the natives of countries from the 40th to the 80th degree of latitude. The cultivated vegetables partake of the variety consequent upon these diversities of climate. Barley is grown to the very edge of the glaciers; the other grains successively in the lower and warmer spots: fruits of the choicest kind, even to the pomegranate and lemon, come to perfection on the southern side of the mountains to-

wards the Italian border ; and vineyards are not unfrequent in favourable situations throughout the country.

Some wild animals occupy the fastnesses of the Alps, and present objects of the chase ; rather, indeed, for diversion than profit. The ibex, or rock-goat, haunts the loftiest and most craggy summits, and exhibits wonderful feats of activity in bounding over the steep rocks and horrible chasms. The chamois, now reckoned a species of antelope, ranges the woody cliffs in small herds. The marmot is often dug out in a torpid state from its winter retreat. Bears and wolves occur in some of the most unfrequented districts, but only when compelled by extreme hunger descend among human habitations.

Nature has been less bountiful of mineral treasures to this country than might have been expected from its mountainous character. Particles of gold are found in the sediments of some of the streams, but in small quantities. Silver has been discovered, but no veins of this metal are opened. Copper and lead are procured in some parts, but in no great abundance. Iron is diffused in sufficient plenty, and some mines of it are wrought to advantage. The scarcity of fuel is an obstacle to all mining adventures ; for fossil coal, though said to exist, is in no part extracted, and the wood of the forests is barely adequate to domestic purposes. Of other minerals, rock-crystal is found in caverns, sometimes in masses of several hundred weight. Marbles beautifully variegated are met with in the calcareous mountains. Fossil salt exists in a district of the canton of Bern, and the brine springs proceeding from it supply the surrounding country with that necessary article. Mineral waters, both hot and cold, occur in many parts of Switzerland.

Nothing in this country, however, so much claims the notice of the speculatist as its human inhabitants. Man, in this narrow corner of Europe, has for centuries existed in a state of moral and political respectability, which elevates him in the eye of reason much above the mass of which ordinary nations are composed. A band of rustic heroes, by their united bravery and prudence, burst, in the 14th century, the fetters of the Austrian domination, and founded a system of civil liberty which resisted all external attacks and internal dissensions, till the late

political tempest which has overthrown so many independent states, and changed the face of Europe. The basis of this system was a confederacy of small republics, each sovereign within itself, but bound to mutual aid. They first constituted the thirteen Swiss cantons, to which the Grisons and other neighbouring communities joined themselves as allies, whilst a few districts were annexed as subjects and dependants. The several republics were formed upon plans of their own choice, exhibiting every variety of constitution, from pure aristocracy to pure democracy; the general result, however, was a greater share of personal liberty, and a greater equality of property, than subsisted in almost any other part of modern Europe. The manners of the people corresponded to their situation and circumstances—plain, frugal, frank, honest, and somewhat rough; extremely attached to their native soil, to which they were impatient to return from all the ease and pleasures of happier climates. Their martial habits led them, when they had established tranquillity and safety at home, to engage in foreign service as mercenaries; and although they acquired great reputation for fidelity, as well as for valour and discipline, yet the readiness with which they employed their arms in any cause for pay, affixed a just stigma on their national character.

The reformation, which, in its contest with ancient abuses, spread dissension and civil war through so many countries, also disturbed the peace of these retired cantons; and many years of hostility and bloodshed elapsed before the quarrel was terminated by an agreement, leaving to each religion the territory it then possessed, upon terms of perfect equality. The Roman catholic religion was retained by the greater number of cantons, including all the democratical or central ones: the protestant religion, in the presbyterian or calvinistic form, was adopted in the great and opulent canton of Bern, and in some others, composing a majority of the population and wealth of Switzerland. The Grison league also, for the most part, acceded to the reformation. A spirit of moderation and equity caused both religions thenceforth to live on amicable terms with each other. In some cantons both were received, but each kept its own limits; and no change seems of late years to have

taken place in this respect. The steady temper of the people renders their attachments of every kind firm and durable.

The prevalent language of these countries is the German. In some districts particular dialects or mixtures of different tongues are in use, and a corrupt Italian is spoken in the subject territories bordering on Italy. French is the common language of the Pays de Vaud, a part of the canton of Bern, and also of some parts of the Valais. The writers of Switzerland employ both the German and French languages, but chiefly the former. In proportion to the advance of opulence and civilization a taste for literature has been cultivated, which has been much favoured by the liberty enjoyed in these once happy regions. Hence Switzerland, which a century ago was looked upon as behind all its neighbours in mental cultivation, can boast of a number of modern authors in science and polite letters, who have obtained reputation throughout Europe ; and knowledge is very generally diffused through the country. The protestant cantons, however, are much superior to the catholic in this respect.

The inland and detached situation of Switzerland is unfavourable to commerce and manufactures. The industry of the people, however, unable entirely to occupy itself with agricultural employments, has been turned to a variety of small manufactures for domestic use, and has even furnished some articles for exportation. The Swiss linens are in considerable repute, nor are their cottons and silks unknown in foreign markets. Their artists have succeeded in works of ingenious mechanism ; and watchmaking is pursued on a large scale in the neighbourhood of the lakes of Geneva and Neufchatel. Numbers of the Swiss, however, for want of scope for their talents in their own country, carry their industry and ingenuity abroad, and are to be met with in all stations, from the highest to the lowest, in most parts of Europe.

Few towns in Switzerland deserve particular notice. Basil, or Basle, on the bank of the Rhine, is an ancient city possessing an university which has produced many celebrated men. It is accounted an agreeable residence, and was the place selected by the great Erasmus as the retreat of his declining years. Bern, finely seated on the Aar, by its neatness and an air of



opulence announces itself as the capital of the largest and wealthiest canton. Zurich enjoys a charming situation on the lake of that name, and is distinguished by its college and public library, and its enlightened citizens. Lausanne, on the lake of Geneva, with the use of the French tongue has acquired a character for politeness and the charms of society, which have rendered it a favourite resort for men of leisure and cultivation.

Formerly in alliance with the Swiss nation, though no part of it, was Geneva, the queen of the Leman lake; a small sovereignty, raised to high distinction by its religion, laws, and learning. It was the centre whence the great reformer Calvin promulgated his system of doctrine and discipline, which held divided sway with that of Luther over the protestant world. Few cities in modern times, even of greatly superior wealth and population, have equalled Geneva in the number of its natives eminent in science and literature, or in the advantages it afforded of rational society and liberal education. It likewise acquired a decent opulence by the pecuniary transactions of its principal inhabitants, and the skill and industry of its artists and manufacturers. After long struggling with the internal dissensions incident to a republican constitution, and the external dangers from powerful and ambitious neighbours, it has finally sunk under the usurping domination of France, and is irrevocably annexed to that empire.

The French revolution likewise overthrew that Helvetic confederacy which had so long subsisted as one of the independent powers of Europe, secure in the natural strength of the country and the valour of its inhabitants. When invaded by the arms of France, the small democratical cantons alone made a resistance worthy of the Swiss name; particularly that canton of Schwitz, whence the name was derived. They sunk, however, with the rest, under a force which they were unable to withstand, and were obliged to submit to the law of the conqueror. At present Switzerland possesses a nominal independence, but under actual subservience to France. Its constitution, though in several respects altered, preserves a resemblance of its former plan; but what it now is, or will in future be, has almost ceased to be an object of interest.

## HOLLAND.

**TAKING** Germany as a point of union of the adjacent states connected with it by a common origin, we proceed to a country which anciently formed a part of it, and is associated with it by the indissoluble bonds of nature.

Under the name of Holland is comprehended the state of the Seven United Provinces of the Netherlands, of which that province is the principal. Situated on the north-western angle of Germany, it is separated from it, not so much by a precise natural boundary, as by a general diversity of aspect and local circumstances. It constitutes the Low-country of the German continent—a region in which land and water hold divided dominion ; broken into peninsulas and islands, intersected with rivers and canals, and rescued, as it were, from the grasp of the ocean by the unremitting efforts of human industry.

Methinks her patient sons before me stand,  
Where the broad ocean leans against the land,  
And, sedulous to stop the coming tide,  
Lift the tall rampire's artificial pride.  
Onward, methinks, and diligently slow  
The firm connected bulwark seems to grow ;  
Spreads its long arms amidst the watery roar,  
Scoops out an empire, and usurps the shore.

GOLDSMITH.

The Seven Provinces are bounded to the north and the west by the German sea ; to the east by Germany ; to the south by those provinces which have usually borne the name of the Catholic Netherlands. That part of it which fronts the sea exhibits strong marks of those encroachments made upon it by the destructive element which history records. A sweep of low islands to the north gives admission through narrow channels to an expanse of salt water called the Zuyder-Zee, which

occupies the place of a large tract of land, the Batavian isle of the Romans. The waters of this gulf have a communication with those of the Haarlem Meer, which last is separated only by a narrow slip of land from the German sea. The southern part of the coast is torn into a number of islands, which constitute the province of Zeeland. The whole range of coast presents only land almost level with the surface of the water, or, indeed, beneath it, and defended by artificial banks, or by a line of low sand-hills, from the incursion of the tides.

The Dutch Provinces (for that is one of their appellations) lie between the latitudes  $51^{\circ} 30'$  and  $53^{\circ} 30'$ . From east to west their extent is less; and in the whole they are estimated to contain only about 10000 square miles. The face of the country is, for the most part, an unvaried level; but it gradually swells into gentle risings on approaching the German border. Its compass is too narrow, and its surface too flat, to give birth to any considerable river, but it is the drain and outlet of several from other countries.

The Rhine, on arriving at its south-eastern boundary in the province of Gelderland, divides into two main branches, of which the more southern, under the name of the Wahal, goes to join the Maes; the more northern soon forms two more branches; one, the Leck, flows due west to join the Maes, not far from its entrance into the German sea; the other, under the name of the Issel, runs northwards to the Zuyder-Zee. A diminutive stream detached from the first of these branches, and passing by Utrecht and Leyden, alone bears the name of Rhine to the sea.

The Maes, or Meuse, coming out of the Catholic Netherlands, reaches the Dutch border a little southward of the entrance of the Rhine, and, turning westward, forms the limit between Dutch Brabant and the United Provinces. After the junction of the Wahal, it divides into several channels, forming islands belonging to South Holland. One of its channels, joined by the Leck, passes Rotterdam, to which it gives a fine harbour, and at length discharges itself into the German sea below the town of Briel. The Scheld, which is likewise a river

of the Catholic Netherlands, passes, near the termination of its course, between Dutch Flanders and Zeeland, thus giving to the United Provinces the possession of the keys of its navigation to the sea.

That part of Holland which is the bed of the Rhine and Maes, and their branches, is naturally a fen or morass, rendered habitable only by numerous drains and canals, protected by embankments, which yet scarcely secure it from inundations. A large lake-like expanse of water near Dordrecht indicates the site of numerous villages, which, near four centuries ago, were suddenly overwhelmed by a sea-breach, with a prodigious loss of lives and property. The lake or meer of Haarlem has already been mentioned, which, with its communicating branch, the Ye, and other meers in North Holland, prove the low and watery surface of that district. The province of Friseland, on the eastern side of the Zuyder-Zee, is almost crossed by a line of meers; and several of the like kind are met with in the adjoining province of Groningen.

From this sketch of the country it will not be expected to afford much scenery attractive to the lover of the picturesque, nor even to abound in the common charms of rural landscape. The provinces of Utrecht and Overijssel alone present some of the agreeable interchange of hill and dale: the latter, however, near the German border, is deformed by wide naked heaths, which are continuous with those of Westphalia. The same features mark the eastern parts of Friseland and Groningen.

The climate is not more inviting than the face of the country. Its characteristic is moisture, with its concomitants of fog and mist, frequently enveloping both land and sea. The winters are often attended with severe cold, so as to freeze not only the rivers and lakes, but even the shallow Zuyder-Zee. The summers, however, are sufficiently warm and constant to bring to perfection the ordinary products of the latitude. The marshy exhalations and chill damps are prejudicial to health, and few European countries are less favourable to longevity.

The soil is chiefly sand, or the muddy deposition from rivers, with frequent intermixture of turf or peat, the fuel of the coun-

try. When properly drained and manured it affords excellent pasturage, on which domestic animals arrive at a great size. The cows of Holland are remarkable for their produce of milk, whence butter and cheese are the principal objects of rural economy. On the light sandy soils, duly cultivated, abundant crops of green vegetables are grown. Some articles are brought to greater perfection in Holland than in most other countries, of which are madder and other dying drugs. Tobacco is successfully planted on the richer soils. For horticulture the Dutch have long been famous, and their florists supply the curious in that branch throughout Europe with the choicest flower roots.

Nature affords so little in this country to engage the attention, that a survey of it must almost solely be occupied with the works of art. Man, and the operations of his industry, can no where be contemplated with more advantage and interest than in Holland. The people of these provinces, anciently celebrated for valour and the love of freedom, were rendered laborious, hardy, and frugal, by the necessities of their situation. The climate further contributed to fix their character, which was marked by phlegmatic patience and slow diligence. Fitted to undertake tasks of great toil and extent, and not easily disheartened by casualties or failures, they accomplished the arduous enterprise of first conquering their country from the ocean, and then rendering it a comfortable abode.

These provinces had acquired a large population and moderate opulence under the limited sovereignty of the house of Austria, when, in the 16th century, the tyranny of Philip II. of Spain impelled them to a revolt, which, after many years of bloody and dubious contest, terminated in their being acknowledged an independent state. No nation ever purchased liberty by more heroic and persevering efforts; for the cool phlegmatic character, when once sufficiently excited by great passions, is most to be relied upon for carrying its aims into full effect. The coincidence of zeal for religious with that for political reformation, infused double vigour into their exertions, and they at the same time freed themselves from the fetters of Spanish despotism, and from the chains of papal authority.

Their losses by land in the earlier part of the struggle induced them to seek an indemnification on the other element, to which they were already habituated by means of their fisheries and their traffic in the neighbouring seas. They assaulted the Spanish trade and settlements (then also including the Portuguese) in both Indies, and laid the foundation of that vast system of foreign commerce and colonization which raised them to the rank of one of the great powers of Europe. They opened an asylum for the oppressed of all countries; their cities were filled with skilful and industrious artisans; their ports were crowded with shipping; and Holland became the grand depository and mart for the richest products of all quarters of the globe. Their population augmented far beyond the sustenance afforded by their native land; but they drew great resources from the ocean, and the harvests of all the neighbouring countries were theirs through the medium of commerce.

The form of government established by the Dutch when become independent was that of a federal republic, in which each of the seven provinces retained a domestic sovereignty, while affairs of common concern were managed by the States-general, composed of deputies from every province. In times of particular danger a captain-general had been appointed under the title of Stadtholder, which office at length became hereditary in the house of Orange, and gave to the government a kind of monarchical mixture. The ecclesiastical establishment was of the calvinistical form, and adherence to it was required from all persons in public trusts; but a free toleration was granted to all religious sects, which accordingly existed in greater variety in Holland than in any other European country, England perhaps excepted. This liberal policy proved of the greatest advantage to the state.

The French conquest of Holland in the late revolutionary war has subverted its ancient constitution, and destroyed its independence; and it can at present be regarded in no other light than as a dependency of that overgrown and usurping power, obliged to adopt its friendships and enmities, and to accept whatever new form of government may be imposed upon it. The stadtholderate has been abolished, together with the

jurisdiction of the provincial states, and the supreme power is nominally vested in a Batavian republic. New changes, however, are depending, and it is impossible to conjecture to what degree they may be carried, or how long the separate existence of a Dutch nation may be permitted.

The modern Dutch character has been modelled by the commercial spirit and the influence of acquired wealth, acting upon original temperament. The sole passion of avarice has resisted the constitutional phlegm, and stimulated the nation to active exertions. Party, indeed, has at different periods roused the latent spirit of a free people ; but little courage has been shown in confronting danger, and the final catastrophe of their independence was almost without a struggle. The want of other feelings to balance that of avarice has rendered the Dutch in their foreign settlements the most severe of masters ; and their public government has been equally tyrannical towards the natives of subject countries, and mean and narrow in its plans of policy. At home, however, the domestic virtues prevail in a laudable degree. Cleanliness, order, decorum, and regularity, are conspicuous in their private abodes and in their public institutions ; nor are they deficient in mutual kindness in the ordinary relations of life. Their habits of living are indeed somewhat gross, and their plainness borders on rusticity.

Political freedom in this, as in other countries, has favoured literature ; and Holland was long not only the place preferred by learned foreigners for the composition and publication of their works, but produced in its bosom many men of profound erudition, and some of distinguished genius. Its own language, a corrupt dialect of the German, called Low-dutch, never spread beyond the narrow limits of the country, and has therefore been made the vehicle of few works of merit. The Latin tongue has been of very general use among their writers, and the benefits of classical education have been largely diffused by means of their academies and universities.

In the arts the Dutch have displayed much ingenuity, with their characteristic qualities of patient labour and correct execution. Their school of painting is highly distinguished for the

exact imitation of nature and exquisite delicacy of finishing. Grace and dignity are, however, qualities to which it has scarcely any pretension. They have attained great perfection in several of the mechanical arts, especially those connected with their local circumstances, such as shipbuilding, constructing canals and dykes, and the drainage of lands. There are also several processes in chymistry and petty manufactures which are only practised by themselves, and are carefully concealed from other nations.

The history of the Dutch commerce has formerly filled volumes. Though much declined, it is still considerable in time of peace, and some branches of it are likely to be durable. Their possession of the lower parts of the Rhine and Maes must always secure them a great inland traffic with Germany, facilitated by the very complete system of canal navigation which connects all their own towns. Their superior skill in the capture and curing of fish gives them a great advantage with respect to that article in foreign markets. They still hold settlements in the East Indies, which afford them almost a monopoly of the rich spice-trade; and their colonies in South America are rendered very productive of the commodities of that part of the globe. Without ceasing to exist, they cannot cease to be a maritime people; and their habits of industry and frugality will always favour them in competitions with other nations.

Of the cities of the United Provinces, the principal is Amsterdam, a port at the extremity of the Zuyder-Zee. It had acquired some consequence as a mart for the fishery and northern trade at the commencement of the revolt from the Spanish dominion, at which period the security of its situation and the ravages of war in other parts caused it to be the centre of the foreign commerce of these states, notwithstanding the obstacles of an incommodious harbour and a morassy soil. The progress of opulence filled it with sumptuous buildings, public and private, and raised it to the rank of one of the first-rate European capitals, its population having amounted to upwards of 200000. It possessed a leading influence in the affairs of the republic, its preponderance in the province of Holland being in nearly the



same proportion as that of Holland in the States-general. The docks and naval arsenals of this city are upon a great scale, and the stadthouse is the most magnificent building of the kind in Europe. Like other Dutch towns it is pervaded with canals, which, from the stagnation of the water, are very offensive in the warm months. Amsterdam is not a desirable residence for persons unconnected with commerce, and must decline in wealth and population with the declension of trade.

Rotterdam, on the Maes, is a considerable commercial city, possessing a better harbour than Amsterdam. It has a great share of the trade with Germany, and is the chief Dutch port frequented by the English. Leyden, an inland city distinguished for its neatness, is the seat of the principal university in the United Provinces. It has produced many eminent men, and has been particularly celebrated for the study of medicine and of the oriental languages. Haarlem is remarkable for its cathedral and fine organ. It has an extensive trade in the fine linens called hollands, which are brought brown from Germany, and whitened at the bleacheries in its neighbourhood. The trade in flower-roots is also considerable here.

The Hague, though only an open town or village, has been rendered famous as the chief seat of the government, and the residence of the prince of Orange and the foreign ambassadors. It is extremely well built, and its environs are more agreeable than those of most of the Dutch towns. In the flourishing times of the republic it was the theatre of great negotiations, and was considered as a resort of some of the best company in Europe. All the above mentioned places are in the province of Holland.

Of the other towns, Middleburg, the capital of Zeeland, is one of the most considerable. Flushing in the same province, at the mouth of the Scheld, is a much-frequented port. Utrecht is a handsome city, pleasantly situated, and the seat of an university of repute. There are many other towns of the second or third order, distinguished for neatness and rendered opulent by particular branches of commerce. Even many of the villages were superior to the towns of other countries. More

wealth and population were crowded into the narrow compass of these uninviting provinces than existed in any equal portion of Europe—such were the effects of industry combined with freedom! Even lately their population was estimated at upwards of 2700000. But it seems impossible that in their present degraded and dependant state they should preserve themselves from a progressive decline, till they sink to the level of their natural consequence

## THE CATHOLIC NETHERLANDS.

THE provinces constituting the Netherlands, or Low Countries, belonging to the crown of Spain, were seventeen in number at the time when the tyranny of Philip II. produced the revolt which finally terminated in the separation and independence of the seven provinces north of the Maes, as mentioned under the last head. The ten provinces south of that river, although the insurrection broke out among them, and was long maintained with great vigour, were in the end obliged to return to their former subjection, being disunited among themselves, and unable, without the interposition of any natural barrier, to resist the armies which successively invaded them. They afterwards became a part of the Austrian dominion, and were for a long period the great field of contention between Austria, France, and Holland. No part of Europe has been the theatre of so many bloody battles and sieges, and the whole art of war has been exhausted in its attack and defence. The efforts of France were, till lately, unable lastingly to do more than appropriate to itself a portion contiguous to its own frontiers. The rest remained in the possession of the house of Austria, with the exception of a narrow slip on the Dutch side, which was conceded to the United Provinces. The French revolution has at length effected what the power and policy of that monarchy so long in vain attempted, and the whole of this country is now rendered an integral part of France, being comprehended in its departments. Still, its former fame, and its difference of language, manners, and natural circumstances, seem to entitle it to a brief separate consideration.

These countries are situated between the latitudes  $49^{\circ} 30'$  and  $51^{\circ} 49'$ . Their breadth is greatest on the southern side, contracting gradually towards the north. They are bounded to the north by Holland and Zeeland, to the east by Germany,

to the south and south-west by France, and to the west by the German sea. The limits between the neighbouring countries are almost entirely artificial; even the channel of the Maes on the northern side is not a precise boundary. The general face of the country is level: on the eastern border alone it is varied with any considerable inequalities, and even these scarcely deserve the name of hills. The soil in the northern part, and on the sea-coast, consists chiefly of sand; but in the main it may be characterized as a rich sandy loam, well adapted to the purposes of cultivation.

The principal river is the Scheld, in French Escaut, which, rising in the French border, takes a winding course northwards, and, after it has passed Antwerp, empties itself into an arm of the sea between Dutch Flanders and Zeeland. It receives most of the other streams of Flanders, Brabant, and Hainault, none of which are considerable. The Maes or Meuse has a longer course than the Scheld, but rather occasionally visits the eastern border of these provinces than appropriates itself to them. If, indeed, the bishopric of Liege be reckoned a part of the Low Countries, by which it is enclosed, the Meuse may rank as a river of this country.

The ancient forest of Ardennes, which formerly overspread great part of the Netherlands, has left considerable remains, especially in Hainault and Luxemburg. These provinces have many wild tracts and open heaths, which contrast with the general air of culture and fertility. It is on this side alone that any mineral treasures can be expected. Some lead and copper are found in Namur; and iron is generally diffused over the Ardennes. Traces of coal are met with in several of these districts, and it is dug in large quantity in the country of Liege, which also contains the famous mineral springs of Spa and Pyrmont.

The climate of the Catholic Netherlands much resembles that of the south of England, to which it is parallel; but had, however, a greater degree of summer heat and of winter cold. The vegetable products are those of the middle part of the temperate zone, rendered peculiarly abundant and excellent by the agricultural skill and industry which have long distinguished the inhabitants. In no part of Europe are the crops of clover,

turnips, legumes, grain, and flax, managed with neater husbandry, or more judiciously interchanged. Fruits of various kinds are brought to perfection. Hops are a common article of culture, and wine is made in the district of Luxemburg, though of indifferent quality. The domestic quadrupeds are of large breeds, and well fed. An air of plenty prevails over the country, in which England alone can perhaps rival it in this quarter of the globe.

Its great population, however, could only have been derived from the union of trade with agriculture ; an advantage it long possessed beyond any of the other western countries of Europe. Its cities and towns were either the marts of foreign commerce, or the seat of domestic manufactures, and wealth and industry animated every part. The Flemings (by which name the inhabitants in general are distinguished) are of Belgic origin. Their character is intermediate between the Batavian and the French, although more allied to the former, as might be inferred from their language, which differs little from the Low Dutch. Possessing a better country than the Hollanders, and less connected with the sea, they turned their attention less to maritime adventure, and more to cultivation and manufactures. Those of wool and flax principally engaged their notice, as the materials were of their own growth. Sensible of the benefits of water-carriage, they took the advantage of a level country to connect all their chief towns by a system of inland navigation, not less complete than that of Holland. The vicissitudes of trade, and the many internal disturbances which these countries have undergone, have caused them to lose the greatest part of their commerce ; but they still retain considerable relics of the population and opulence introduced by it. Of all their fabrics, those of which flax is the material have best withstood the changes of the times ; and to this day the finest laces and most beautiful linens are the produce of Low Countries.

The Flemings have had the honour of forming a school of painting, which, next to those of Italy, has obtained the highest degree of reputation in Europe. With the exact imitation of nature, and delicate execution of the Dutch school, it has unit-

ed a portion of the higher qualities of invention and grandeur. Their tapestries also have been in high esteem, and in various works of arts they have displayed considerable talents.

Although the reformation had made a rapid progress in the country at the commencement of the revolt from Philip II. yet the event of the war left the ancient religion fully established ; and the Flemings have ever since been accounted among the most bigoted of its votaries. In no country have the ecclesiastical foundations been more numerous and opulent ; so that a large share of the land has been included within the domain of the church. The universities of these provinces have been chiefly devoted to the service of the catholic religion, and have therefore obtained little reputation for liberal learning. The influence of the priesthood has been steadily exerted in counter-acting all schemes of toleration and reform : at the same time it has vigorously promoted a spirit of resistance to those arbitrary projects of the Austrian sovereigns, which aimed at the abolition of the national rights and privileges. These were so considerable as to form a powerful barrier against absolute monarchy ; and after several violent struggles under the late emperor Joseph II. the nation succeeded in establishing them in all their force. Now, however, they are all merged in a participation in the civil and ecclesiastical constitution of the great nation to which these provinces have been annexed by conquest.

Of the many once important cities in the Catholic Netherlands, it will suffice in their present state to notice a few among the principal. Antwerp, on the Scheld, during the flourishing age of Flemish commerce, was one of the greatest marts of foreign commerce in this part of the world. The evils it underwent during the war of revolt, and its final subjugation to the Spanish yoke, brought on a rapid declension, which was confirmed by the rise of Amsterdam, and the shutting of the Scheld by the Dutch. It has long presented only the vestiges of past grandeur, in stately buildings, public and private, almost unoccupied, and solitary grass-grown streets. In this state it was, however, visited as a seat of the arts, and particularly as the school of the great Rubens, whose finest paintings were preserved in the churches and cabinets of the place, with those of other

**Flemish masters.** Of the best of these it has been stript by its French conquerors ; but, in return, attempts have been made by the new government to restore its trade and navigation, with considerable success. It possesses some thriving manufactories of linen and cotton.

Ghent, the ancient capital of Flanders, is a city of great extent, but not of proportional population. It abounds in churches and religious houses, and has a share in the manufactures of the country. Bruges, once the greatest staple in Europe for the woollen manufacture, is sunk into insignificance. The great canal passing by this city from Ghent terminates at Ostend, the principal sea-port of these provinces. Its harbour is artificial, and vast exertions were made in the time of the emperor Joseph to improve it, and raise the place to consequence. Many English settled in it, and it began to wear a face of business ; but the late changes have been unfavourable to its prosperity.

Brussels, the capital of Brabant, was the seat of government under the Austrian dominion, and by the splendour of its buildings and its ornamental decorations announced its rank as a metropolis. Though it has lost this advantage, it is still a populous and rich city, distinguished for ingenious arts and manufactures. Liege is a large city, noted for the multiplicity of its religious foundations, and its hardware manufactures. In the latter, Luxemburg also partakes. The principal university of the Catholic Netherlands is Louvain, long regarded as the bulwark of the orthodox faith in these parts. It possesses extensive privileges, which it defended with great spirit and pertinacity against the attempted reforms of Joseph.

It may be observed, that no part of Europe abounds with fortified places equally with the Low Countries. The level of their situation, which deprived them of the natural advantages of defence, caused every resource of the engineer's art to be put in practice in order to give them artificial strength : and the introduction of a new system of fortification may be attributed to the necessity of placing a firm barrier on this ground between great military powers.

## THE BRITISH ISLES.

IN order to finish our survey of the northern part of the temperate zone in Europe, before we enter decisively upon the southern part, it will be necessary to quit the continent, and pass over to that group of islands on the west, which to the ancients appeared as if cut off from the rest of the inhabited world, and forming, as it were, a world within itself. The improvements in navigation, it is true, have greatly reduced the idea of comparative remoteness in their situation ; yet the narrow sea which separates them from the continent is still the instrumental cause of the most important circumstances in their civil and political state.

These islands, long partitioned into distinct and generally hostile governments, are now happily consolidated into one dominion, which, by its extent of territory and population, is able to maintain a rank among the most considerable of the European sovereignties. This natural rank has been raised still higher by internal improvements and an unparalleled course of commercial prosperity ; so that the British empire is at present one of the most conspicuous objects in the survey of nations, and exerts a powerful influence in the affairs of the world. Exclusively, therefore, of local partialities, it is entitled to an attentive consideration.

Of the British isles two far surpass the rest in magnitude : these are Great Britain and Ireland, both of them larger than any other island of Europe, the bleak and steril Iceland excepted. Of the two Great Britain possesses a superiority of extent, which marks it out as the seat of the united empire. By its position, likewise, it forms the barrier towards the continent, and seems to shelter and embrace the rest in its bosom. It therefore claims the first and principal notice.



## GREAT BRITAIN.

**THIS** island stretches in a direction from south to north, between the 50th and about the 58 $\frac{1}{4}$ th degree of N. latitude. Its breadth is greatest on the southern side, where it forms a base of about 340 miles. Thence it proceeds narrowing, but very irregularly, till it terminates in the north with a breadth of less than 70 miles. One of the places at which the opposite seas approach the nearest is somewhat beyond the middle of its length. At this part nature has made such an apparent division of the island into two portions, that for a long series of years it was the boundary of two distinct countries, England and Scotland : and notwithstanding their political union, a degree of separation between the two still subsists, marked by the natural difference of softer features and superior fertility in the southern portion, and by certain civil diversities of laws, religion, and dialect. We will, however, first consider the island as constituting a whole.

The face of the country in Great Britain presents all the variety that any extensive tract of land can afford ; but the scale upon which nature has wrought is comparatively minute, and the features are all blended and softened by intermixture. This is especially true of the southern portion, of which the inequalities of surface rarely rise to the height of mountains, and the bare and rugged tracts are of little extent. No continued mountainous region is to be met with in this part, except the district in the middle of the western side called Wales, the slip of land running out to the south-western angle forming Cornwall, and a ridge proceeding from the centre of the island northwards, which has been termed the Apennines of England. Low ranges of chalk and limestone hills occur in various parts ; and one in particular extends from Cambridgeshire through many counties westward, till it expires on the sea-coast in Dorsetshire.

The greatest extent of level ground is on the eastern side of England, accompanying the sea-coast for the space of several counties. Between Norfolk and Lincolnshire commences a tract of fen or marsh, following the course of the sluggish rivers which find their discharge in that part, and formed by their frequent inundations. These districts would be uninhabitable, if great industry had not been employed in cutting drains and raising embankments, by which means they have for the most part been converted into rich meadows and corn fields.

The northern portion of the island assumes a somewhat different character. Its level tracts are more bleak and naked, and its Highlands occupy a large space in the middle and north-western parts, frowning in all the gloom of sterility, and frequently rising into mountains of Alpine grandeur. Lakes, and arms of the sea running far up into the country, give to its landscapes the picturesque appendage of masses of water, which the most beautiful scenes of South Britain seldom afford.

Great Britain is watered by numerous rivers, which serve the purposes both of fertility and of inland navigation. Of these the principal are the Thames, Severn, and Trent, which are navigable to a considerable distance from the sea.

The extent of Great Britain includes a space in latitude sufficient to produce considerable difference of climate. The whole of it, however, lies within the northern region of the temperate zone, and feels the influence of such a position. It possesses the insular advantage of being less subject to extremes of temperature than the parallel latitudes on the continent; and while the harbours of the opposite coasts of Holland, Germany, and Scandinavia are frequently frozen up in the winter, such a circumstance is never known to take place even in the northern parts of Britain or any of its adjacent islands. Frequent and unexpected changes in the weather, and a general tendency to humidity, are the characteristic faults of its climate. These qualities proceed from its vicinity to the Atlantic ocean, from which quarter the prevailing winds blow, bringing with them a quick succession of clouds. This circumstance renders the western side of the island much more sub-

ject to rain than the eastern, to which the clouds do not arrive till deprived of part of their contents. The latter, however, is more infested with fogs, and with cold easterly winds. The moisture of the atmosphere, however unpleasant, is the cause of that perpetual verdure which delights the eye in the British landscape, beyond that of almost any other country. It may be added, that the freedom from violent extremes conduces to the salubrity of the country, in which respect it is surpassed by few.

Of soil there is every kind of variety, as might be expected within such a compass. Stiff clay and loam predominate in several of the counties of England which are most noted for fertility. Sand prevails in some tracts, chalk and calcareous earth in others, and hungry gravel and black moor are not uncommon. On the whole, the proportion of land is very considerable which has been left almost in a state of nature from its unpromising qualities, and which an expensive culture alone can render productive. This proportion increases in the northern counties of England, and in Scotland, of which last country great tracts in the Highlands are doomed to perpetual sterility. On its eastern side, however, good soil prevails quite to the northern extremity.

Cultivation has so far improved upon the bounty of nature, that no country within similar latitudes surpasses it in the production of all the articles essential to the support of man and beast. The different kinds of grain are raised in almost all parts of the island, though not with equal advantage. The inferior soil and climate of the north impair the quantity and quality ; and the humid western coast is less favourable to the maturity and collection of the harvests than the drier eastern. The extensive culture of that best substitute for corn, the potatoe, has in a good degree supplied the deficiency. The great spirit and intelligence with which agriculture is pursued, has introduced a variety of leguminous and other vegetables, which, by judicious interchanges of crops, have prevented the necessity of leaving the land fallow, and greatly increased the quantity of food. Of more local articles of culture may be mentioned the flax and hemp of some parts ; the hops of seve-

ral of the southern and western counties ; and the apples and pears of nearly the same districts, which are largely grown for making cider and perry.

The defects of the climate, with the progress of luxury, have caused the art of horticulture to be carried to a high degree of perfection throughout this island. Besides the usual culinary vegetables, the finest fruits of the temperate zone are produced, though not without the assistance of walls and artificial heat. Exotics from all parts of the globe are found in the green-houses and hot-houses of the curious and opulent ; and the more hardy of foreign ornamental trees and shrubs are seen in profusion to decorate the pleasure-grounds and gardens even of persons in the middle ranks of society.

There is no point of rural economy in which the British nation more excels than in the breeding of domestic animals, every species of which has been brought to a degree of excellence scarcely to be met with in other countries.

The mineral treasures of Great Britain yield to those of few European countries. While the island was yet in a savage state, its south-western shores were frequented by the commercial and maritime nations of early times, for the excellent tin afforded by its mines. Among the various minerals are iron, tin, lead, copper, pit-coal, rock-salt, with several kinds of earthen and stones useful in the arts and manufactures. Iron-ore is more extensively diffused than that of the other metals, and is dug in vast quantities in many parts of South and North Britain. That singular and valuable substance, wad, or black lead, is found in its greatest purity and perfection in the mountains of Cumberland.

These gifts of nature are rendered more valuable by the abundance of another mineral product, which is one of the greatest benefits bestowed upon this island. This is fossil or pit-coal, the chief article of fuel since the increase of population and the decay of the ancient forests. In no country of the globe is it drawn from the earth in such quantities, or of such different qualities, suited to different purposes. It is limited to particular tracts, and in general is found to lie in a direction from the south-west to the north-east.

The inhabitants of Great Britain are compounded of a variety of races, some remaining distinct, but the greater part indistinguishably blended. At the time of the Roman invasion the natives were of Celtic blood. To these a foreign addition was doubtless made by the conquerors. The Saxon invaders poured in a great mass of German population, which took possession of the best parts of the island, and confined the remaining Celts to the mountains of Wales and the Scotch Highlands, where their posterity to this day retain their language and national characteristics. The Danes, in their frequent and destructive inroads seized upon many districts on the sea-coast, especially on the eastern side of the island, and became permanent settlers. The Normans next gave a new set of great proprietors to the lands, and an infusion of their blood and language. Refugees from the continent, and an influx of natives of different countries, attracted by commerce and lucrative employments, have in later times been continually adding to the variety of sources. On the whole, however, the main stock may be regarded as similar to that of the Teutonic nations of Europe, a dialect of whose language is the base of the English and Scotch tongue, and whose bodily temperament and mental constitution are most prevalent.

In common with all these nations the people of Great Britain, generally considered, are brave, frank, undesigning, and somewhat gross. They are more solid than sprightly, and excel more in judgment than in imagination. Taciturn and bashful, they rather repel than invite promiscuous society; and the habit of repressing external emotions perhaps really stifles their sensibility. Their passions are rather boisterous than strong, and mildness and good-nature often lurk under a stern and rough demeanour. No people are more placable in their anger: even the mobs, which delight in riotous mischief and abuse, are never bloody. A dislike of control, and contempt of form and order, are prominent features in their disposition, probably fostered by the freedom of the constitution and equality of rights. The free scope given to all eccentricities has perhaps caused them to appear more frequent in the British character than they really are; for, upon the whole, considerable uniformity of manners and way of life prevails in simi-

lar classes. The quiet domestic character is the most common in both sexes, and the substantial comforts of life are more relished than its splendours and gayeties.

The inhabitants of Wales and of the Scotch Highlands derive from their Celtic origin a considerable difference of national character. They have each preserved a separate language, both of them branches of the Celtic stem, but so dissimilar as to be mutually unintelligible. Greater vivacity and mutability of disposition, with warmer passions, discriminate the Welch. The Highlanders are inclined to gloom and melancholy, probably imbibed from the climate and face of nature round them. They are hardy, brave, and so extremely attached to their lords and chieftains, as to lose every sentiment of freedom in implicit obedience. Both people are deficient in the steady industry and active exertion which belong to the German character.

The government of this country, in its origin not different from that of other nations of the German stock, has, by a number of successive improvements, been modelled into a constitution more favourable to civil and personal liberty than almost any upon record, which has excited the admiration of political speculatists, and has been the principal cause of its unexampled prosperity. Its essence consists in an union of the three great branches of government, the monarchic, aristocratic, and democratic, into one system, in which they mutually balance one another, and operate together as a harmonious whole. The entire executive power is lodged in the crown, which is hereditary and independent. The legislative authority consists in the parliament, composed of the king, an hereditary house of lords, and the representatives of the people elected into a house of commons. Each of these branches possesses a negative upon the proceedings of the other. In the house of commons all supplies of money for public purposes originate, which gives it a preponderance, balanced, however, by the influence of the crown, which has augmented in proportion to the number of posts of honour and profit that are exclusively within its disposal. Although many defects and abuses exist in the English constitution, which render it in reality very different from what it seems to be in

theory ; yet its efficacy in securing the rights of individuals and the leading interests of the nation is confessedly great ; and the freedom with which all public measures are canvassed, both in and out of parliament, powerfully controls any attempt to counteract the national will.

The laws are necessarily complicated and numerous ; yet the equality with which, in general, they bear upon all ranks, and the impartiality with which they are administered, are entitled to high commendation. In particular, criminal justice is rendered with a spirit of equity and humanity scarcely paralleled in any other country. The trial by jury, and the respectable rank and independent situation of the judges, are invaluable securities for the protection of innocence, and the just decision of causes.

The religion established in Great Britain is the protestant. Its form in England is episcopalian, with a hierarchy similar to that of the catholic church, and a liturgic service. The national character and political circumstances have introduced a full toleration of separatists of every class ; but a participation in the principal rite of the established church (the sacrament of the Lord's supper) is made a necessary condition for the enjoyment of any place of trust or profit under the government. The ecclesiastical establishment of Scotland is upon the calvinistic or presbyterian model, of which, equality among the ministers is the basis. Its clergy are slenderly provided for, and its church presents none of those stations of dignity and opulence, which render the church of England an object worthy of the attention of the best families in the kingdom.

The two universities of England, Oxford and Cambridge, have attained a high degree of celebrity in the learned world, and are conspicuous for the grandeur of their edifices, and the magnitude of their revenues. They consist of a number of separate colleges, connected by relation to a general academical body. They constitute a part of the ecclesiastical establishment, and are principally calculated for the theological profession, comprising, however, the general studies of a liberal education.\*

\* At Oxford, ancient literature is much cultivated ; at Cambridge, mathe

The four Scotch universities, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen, and St. Andrews, are institutions of less splendour, but are highly respectable as seminaries of useful learning. That of Edinburgh is peculiarly eminent as a school for medicine.

With no greater natural aptitude for the pursuits of knowledge than their neighbours possess, the English, from the free scope permitted to discussion of all kinds, have distinguished themselves beyond most modern nations for their attainments in science and philosophy. A language little accommodated to the ears of the more refined people of Europe, and therefore little studied, long limited the English to the admiration of their own countrymen; but the present opinion of impartial foreigners appears to justify the exalted ideas which they have entertained of their native productions in poetry and other departments of the belles lettres. English works are read, translated, and imitated throughout the lettered continent; and the language is now generally admitted among the most cultivated European dialects.

In the fine arts a want of inventive genius has been ascribed to the English by foreigners, who have accounted for it upon fanciful principles derived from climate and bodily temperament. A remoteness from good models, and want of due encouragement, have been the more probable causes of their past deficiency in this respect, which an alteration of circumstances may hereafter obviate. It is certain that, in every thing which relates to mechanical contrivance, and improvement in manufactures, no defect of invention can be justly attributed to this nation.

It is to her successful exertions in the latter points, and her spirit of maritime and commercial adventure, that Great Britain

matics and mechanical philosophy constitute the prevailing studies. During a considerable part of the year, the course of instruction is suspended at both universities, and at all times the students have little necessary employment; hence idleness, dissipation, and extravagance infest those venerable temples of the muses. The plan of education at Oxford has undergone no material change or reform for many ages, and consequently is far too antiquated to promote those branches of learning which are requisite in the present enlightened period of the world.

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owes the height of power and opulence to which she has arrived, and which so much surpass her relative scale of territory and population. As an island, furnished with a great range of coast and numerous harbours, many of her inhabitants were early addicted to a sea-faring life. It was late, however, before her attention was much turned to manufactures, and only in consequence of the emigration of some industrious foreigners, driven from their homes by religious persecution. The original staple of the country was its wool, first exported raw but after this period wrought into various articles of clothing, which became a very valuable branch of commerce. This is still an important manufacture, and is spread over a large tract of country.

Of much later origin, but now of superior commercial importance, is the cotton manufacture, extending through many of the northern counties of England into Scotland, and giving employment to vast numbers of people. Although the raw material is of foreign growth, yet a great part of the supply coming from British colonies, the demand adds a link to the chain of British commerce. The principal seat of this manufacture is Lancashire, and its centre is the town of Manchester, by its means now become the second for population in the kingdom. In Scotland the city of Glasgow and its vicinity have chiefly profited by this manufacture. In variety, elegance, and cheapness united, no fabrics of the loom can vie with the cotton; and there are no articles in which the superiority of British workmanship is more confessed in all foreign markets. The many ingenious mechanical inventions for spinning and weaving, joined with the advantage of coal for working steam-engines, have overbalanced in favour of this country the lower price of labour on the continent.

The linen manufacture of Great Britain, chiefly carried on in the north of England and Scotland, is principally occupied in the supply of home consumption. The same may be said of the silk, which constitutes one of the manufactures of the metropolis. In conjunction, however, with other materials, it is used in various slight and showy fabrics which find a ready sale abroad.

The manufactures in which metals are employed are particularly flourishing in England, which yields both the metals themselves and the fuel for working them. One of its most populous towns, Birmingham is supported by a vast variety of useful and ornamental articles of hardware, in many of which a surprising degree of show is united with such proportional cheapness, that they are unrivalled in foreign markets. Sheffield, another great town is equally pre-eminent for its cutlery wares and plated goods. The metropolis is in possession of some of the ablest workmen in metals, and is particularly celebrated for its mathematical and astronomical instruments, which are confessedly superior to those of any other country. Many other towns participate in the different branches of metallic manufacture; and the iron founderies, at which the metal is smelted from the ore, and formed into articles of mass and bulk, are numerous, and upon a scale of great magnitude. In many districts iron and coal are found in conjunction: an advantage of which such use has been made, as to convert some of the dreariest and most steril spots into lively scenes of population.

Potteries, which are frequent throughout the island, have attained such elegance and perfection, particularly in the county of Stafford, as to afford a valuable article of exportation.

To the preceding sources of foreign commerce are to be added those products which Great Britain derives from her colonies and possessions abroad, and which in part she re-exports to other countries.

Thus Great Britain has become the greatest commercial nation that the world ever beheld, covering all the seas with her ships, and known and respected by the most distant nations. Her trading navy has been the support and nursery of a warlike navy, the most powerful, and the most formidable for courage and discipline, that the annals of mankind have recorded. She is at present the undoubted Queen of the Ocean, an envied and hazardous station; which can be preserved only by the union of equity and moderation with vigorous exertion.

It has been an advantage of the combination of manufactures with foreign commerce, that wealth has been generally diffused through the country, scarcely any part of it being out of the

reach of profitable employment. The advanced demand for the necessities of life has given additional encouragement to agriculture, and the value of land and its products has fully kept pace with the influx of opulence. Lands newly taken into culture, neat farms, elegant villas, thriving towns, and smiling villages, every where meet the traveller's eye. The mutual communication of the different parts is promoted by turnpike roads in every direction, and by inland navigation, which has been carried on during the last 40 or 50 years with unexampled spirit. Canals now spread their arms over the surface of the island, connecting all the great towns and navigable rivers, and forming a system of water communication more complete than exists in any other country in Europe, with the exception of the Netherlands. The mechanical skill and invention displayed in their construction would alone suffice to do honour to the national genius.

The metropolis of the British empire, London, is beyond question the most populous and opulent city in Europe; nor is it known to be surpassed in these respects by any in the world, if those of China and Japan be excepted. The advantage of being at the same time the civil and the commercial capital has given it this superiority. By means of the river Thames it is rendered a port accessible to the largest merchant ships, whilst its remoteness from the sea secures it from the sudden attacks of an enemy. If in point of architectural magnificence it cannot vie with some of the continental cities, yet in every thing which conduces to convenience and comfort it may challenge competition. Its inhabitants, besides the ordinary trades and occupations belonging to a great and luxurious metropolis, are employed in various branches of manufacture, and in the multiplied concerns of foreign and domestic commerce and shipping. The people of London, Westminster, the borough of Southwark, and some contiguous country parishes, were returned at the late enumeration at upwards of 864000. To the distance of several miles round, villages closely succeed one another, filled with the elegant residences of the merchants and other opulent inhabitants of London; nor would any circumstance so much enhance a foreigner's idea of the capital, as the

buildings which border every avenue to it, and the long lines of lamps illuminating the roads that converge from every quarter.

The second sea-port of the kingdom is Liverpool, a town risen to importance within a late period, and now ranking as the third in population. Its natural harbour formed by the mouth of the river Mersey, is but indifferent; but its docks occupying the heart of the town, are very secure and convenient receptacles for its numerous shipping. The Guinea, West India, American, and Irish trades are the principal branches of its commerce. Bristol, a city which long ranked next to London, is still very considerable for population and opulence. Its harbour is the bed of the small river Avon, opening into the Bristol channel, inconvenient of access, and unworthy of the traffic of the place. Its dealings are principally with the West Indies, with Spain, Portugal, and Ireland. Hull, on the Humber, is a port of great commerce, principally to the Baltic. It possesses a large dock. Newcastle, besides the coal trade, carries on a considerable general traffic. The two southern ports of Plymouth and Portsmouth, are the principal stations of the royal navy, for the use of which they have docks and arsenals of great magnitude.

Two inland cities, Bath and Oxford, are worthy of being visited for their architectural character. Bath, the great resort of fashionable invalids and the votaries of pleasure, strikes the eye by its elegant piles of white stone building in the modern style, some of them richly ornamented. Oxford, by the intermixture of Gothic and Grecian edifices, for the most part well disposed for the view, and uniting the sensations of collegiate retirement with those of grandeur and magnificence, never fails to make a strong impression on the traveller.

The capital of Scotland, Edinburgh, is rendered striking by a commanding and picturesque situation, and by the peculiarity of its building. The old town, upon the model of some on the continent, is remarkable for the loftiness of its houses, which are inhabited in different floors by distinct families. The new town is laid out with perfect regularity, and consists of streets of elegant modern houses built of hewn stone. In population Edinburgh ranks among the European capitals of the

third order. For cultivated and literary society it is scarcely excelled by any. At a small distance, on the frith of Forth, is its sea-port, Leith, a place of considerable and increasing commerce.

Glasgow in elegance of building, and the opulence proceeding from commerce and manufactures, has scarcely a superior among the secondary towns in the island. Its port on the Clyde has a great share in the West India trade.

The population of England, including the army, navy, and seamen in the merchant service, was found at the late enumeration to exceed 9300000. That of Scotland (with its islands) is stated at above 1600000. Great Britain may therefore be reckoned to contain eleven millions of people, which is a smaller relative population than that of some European countries more favourably situated as to climate. The rapid increase which it has obtained during the last half-century seems, however to be still progressive. It probably already surpasses the number that could be comfortably maintained from internal resources only; but the industry and ingenuity of the natives, employed in commerce and manufactures, is a fund which has no assignable limits.

The wide diffusion of luxury, and the excessive burdens of taxation have, however, advanced the necessities and ordinary comforts of life to such an enormous price, that to support a decent station in society is become a very difficult task; whence the acquisition of wealth has been rendered the general concern, to a degree that has injured a national character, in many points truly respectable. In political affairs it has greatly impaired the spirit of independence at home, and the principle of justice towards other countries. In private life it has caused money rather than glory to be looked to as the reward of eminence, and has introduced an estimate of the value of talents and attainments formed upon speculations of profit alone. Wealth, however, when acquired, is in general no where enjoyed more reasonably or imparted more liberally; and there is a fund of generosity and humanity in the British character which powerfully counteracts the narrow unfeeling spirit of calculating avarice.

As appendages to Britain a great number of small islands is scattered over the surrounding seas, especially toward the north ; but they are not of sufficient size and importance to require a particular description in this place.

The Isle of Wight lies near the south side of England, and is about 21 miles long and 13 broad ; fertile and beautiful. The Isle of man lies between Britain and Ireland, is about 30 miles long and 15 broad, and is rugged, bleak, and steril. The Western Isles properly called Hebrides, lie on the west side of Scotland : they are numerous, and generally rugged, bleak and barren. On the north side of Scotland lie the Orkney Isles, and also the Shetland Isles, two numerous groups of islands, wild, dreary and barren, and involved in the fogs and tempests of the Atlantic ocean.

On the west side of France lie the two small islands of Jersey and Guernsey, which belong to Britain. They are pretty fertile and populous, and carry on a large contraband trade between France and England during peace, and are a station for privateers in time of war.

## IRELAND.

**THIS** noble portion of the British empire is an island situated west of Great Britain, from which it is separated by a narrow sea. It lies chiefly between the 52d and 55th degrees of N. latitude, but extends somewhat beyond them at each extremity. Its greatest length taken obliquely from S. W. to N. E. is about 300 miles ; its breadth across the middle exceeds 160 miles.

In climate Ireland differs from England only in being more directly exposed to the influence of the Atlantic ocean, and its prevailing winds. Hence it still more abounds in moisture, and its atmosphere is more enveloped in clouds and fogs ; at the same time it is proportionally less subject to the severity of frost. From early times it acquired the title of green Erin, and could not fail to delight the eye of those who visited it from the black moors and hills of Scotland, or the parched coasts of the south of Europe.

The general face of the country is level, its hills or mountains being only in short detached ridges. Of these some of the most conspicuous run from the south-western point of the island towards the south-eastern coast, appearing again, after an intermission, in the county of Wicklow, and detaching branches towards the central parts. The western coast of the county of Galway is likewise a mountainous region ; and groups of hills may be traced at intervals round the northern coast.

One of the most striking features of this country is the quantity of bog by which its surface is deformed, and which probably has usurped the place of the forests that formerly overspread the island. The bogs are not confined to the level tracts, but frequently rise into hills. They are a great obstruction both to travelling and to agriculture, but they furnish an inexhaustible supply of fuel to the neighbouring poor. The

reclaiming of these bogs offers an arduous task to the spirit of improvement, which in several places is successfully begun.

The sea-coast of Ireland is much more entire on the east and north sides than on the west and south, exhibiting in a striking manner the difference between a shore sheltered by a near opposite coast, and one beaten by the waves of a vast unbroken ocean. The western side particularly, is cut into deep bays and inlets, forming capacious and excellent harbours. The northern extremity of the island is distinguished by a remarkable natural curiosity, called the Giant's Causeway, consisting of magnificent ranges of basaltic columns, which fill a considerable space on the shore, and run out into the sea.

The rivers of Ireland have in general but a short course. The most considerable is the Shannon, which rises from the lake of Allen, in the county of Leitrim, and after traversing two other large lakes, and watering a wide tract of country in its course from north to south, at length discharges itself by a broad estuary into the Atlantic ocean, between the counties of Limerick and Clare.

The Irish lakes are numerous, and many of them large. The most extensive are Lough-Neagh, in the north-eastern quarter, and Lough-Earn in the north-western. The lake of Killarney, so much celebrated for its romantic beauties, is near the south-western extremity of the island.

The soil of Ireland, where not occupied by moors or morasses, is in general highly fertile, and productive of the sustenance for man and beast usually raised under similar latitudes. The wetness of the climate renders the growth of grain somewhat precarious; and it is fortunate that its place is so well supplied by the abundance of potatoes, which were first introduced hither from America, and became a common article of food when they were little known in any other European country. This root and oats constitute the chief farinaceous food of the poor. To the breeding and feeding of cattle the soil and climate are particularly favourable; hence the lower classes are usually well supplied with milk; and butter, salted provisions, and live cattle are exported in large quantities, especially from the south of Ireland. Much wool is also produced from the



numerous flocks of sheep kept in the hilly districts. Flax is a common crop in the soils suited to it. There is still room for great improvement in the agriculture of this country, which has suffered particular discouragements from various circumstances of internal regulation.

The inhabitants of Ireland derive their origin from different stocks. The great body of the nation is a Celtic tribe of very ancient establishment in this island, who speak a dialect of the Celtic tongue, called Erse or Gaelic. The settlement of the English by conquest in the reign of Henry II, to whom continual accessions were made in the subsequent reigns, gave a mixture of English blood, with the language and manners of that nation. The northern province of Ulster has received successive bodies of colonists from Scotland. From these circumstances political consequences arose which long ruled the fate of Ireland, and still exert an influence over it.

The repugnance of the native Irish to the English yoke produced a long series of insurrections and rebellions, which naturally caused the bands of subjection to be drawn tighter. Confiscations and proscriptions multiplied, till at length almost all the original inhabitants were stript of their properties, and driven back to the savage state. Religious differences increased these disorders. The English reformation was rejected not only by the native Irish, but by the descendants of the early English settlers; and the establishment of a protestant church upon the model of that of England, instead of converting the mass of people from popery, only added to their grievances, and inflamed their disaffection. At present it is reckoned that at least two-thirds of the people are Roman catholics; and of the remaining third, about one half are dissenters, chiefly of the presbyterian sect, introduced by the settlers from Scotland. It is obvious that an ecclesiastical establishment, five-sixths of the expense of which is borne by those who do not share in its benefits, can never cease to be regarded as an oppressive burden by the nation at large.

The Irish national character, especially that of the original stock is considerably different from that of Great Britain. Greater vivacity and quickness of parts, propensities more social

and stronger sensibilities of all kinds, accompanied with the usual attendants on such qualities, unsteadiness and want of self-government, sufficiently mark them as a distinct people. The state of perpetual hostility against government, and of internal dissension, in which they have long lived, has given a ferocity to the lower classes, and not to them alone, which too frequently breaks out in savage and bloody deeds; yet no people display more faithful and affectionate attachment to those who have conciliated their good-will. A precipitancy of manner, and a proneness to exaggeration, have introduced into the conversation-style of the Irish a kind of hurry and confusion, which has subjected them to the imputation of often falling into ludicrous contradictions: but, on the other hand, eloquence is natural to them; and they display more imagination than their eastern neighbours. Few nations have given more undeniable proofs of a genius adapted to scientific and literary pursuits; but it is to be lamented that the prevalence of dissipation has exerted so unfavourable an influence upon the general habits of life, that scarcely any European country is less distinguished by the productions of its press. In this point Ireland is a striking contrast to Scotland.

The state of subordination in which Ireland was held by the British government, and the restrictions upon her commerce, have been gradually relaxing during the present reign, till at length an act of union has admitted her to all the rights and privileges of the larger country. Her parliament has merged in a proportionate share of members in the British houses of lords and commons. A viceroy, or lord-lieutenant, still resides in Dublin to administer the executive government in that island, the detached situation and peculiar circumstances of which render such an appointment necessary. One of these circumstances is the disabilities under which a large majority of the inhabitants (the Roman catholics) lie with respect to offices of trust and profit, and the right of sitting in parliament. It is to be presumed, from the liberality of the times, that such disqualifications will be removed as soon as prudence will permit.

The staple manufacture of Ireland is white linens. These are made in quantities sufficient for a large exportation, chiefly to

England and America. Much of the flax employed in it is the produce of the country. The town of Belfast is the centre of the linen trade, which extends over great part of the province of Ulster. That part of Ireland is in consequence the best cultivated, and inhabited by the most opulent and orderly people. Woollen manufactures prevail in the south-east, at Wexford and its neighbourhood. Dublin possesses fabrics of silk and mixed stuffs. The cotton trade is beginning to make a progress in some parts. The dressing of leather is a considerable branch of business, and various other species of manufacture have been introduced to employ the rising industry of this country. It is still, however, in internal improvement of every kind much behind Britain.

The metropolis, Dublin, is the second city in the British dominions. It has a few magnificent public buildings, and many modern streets which may vie with those of London for elegance. The style of living is gay and luxurious; but grandeur here, and throughout the island, is too closely bordered on by meanness and beggary. The harbour of Dublin is incommodious, though great sums have been expended on its improvement. Its commerce is chiefly that occasioned by its own wants. The number of inhabitants is estimated at 150000, many of whom are engaged in manufacture. Dublin possesses the only Irish university, formed upon the model of those in England, and like them an appendage of the ecclesiastical establishment. Its situation in a dissipated capital is unfavourable to morals and discipline; and it affords a very inadequate provision for public education in a populous country. The neighbourhood of Dublin has many pleasing and romantic situations, adorned with elegant villas. Its bay is greatly admired as a sea-view.

Cork, the second city for wealth and population, situated on the south-east side of the island, has one of the most capacious harbours in Europe. It is a place of great commerce, and is particularly the mart for the provision-trade; on which account it is visited by numbers of ships outward-bound to the West Indies and other parts. Beef, hides, tallow, and butter, are its principal articles of exportation. Waterford, a populous town at the mouth of the Suir, deals largely in the same commodities.

Limerick, on the Shannon, is the third city in Ireland for population. Its trade is of the same kind with that of the two preceding.

Nothing displays the inferiority of this country in respect to industry and police so much as the wretched condition of the rural poor, who live in miserable huts, half naked, and scarcely provided with common necessities. Yet they generally marry and bring up large families, furnishing a copious supply of emigrants to England, America, or other countries where their services are in demand. The whole population of Ireland has been variously stated, at from three to four millions. A late estimate raises it much higher.

## FRANCE.

**THIS** country, which, from its natural advantages and the character of its inhabitants, has long held a place among the principal European powers, has from late events filled such a space in the history of the age, and has acquired such an accumulation of power and consequence, that the attention of all its neighbours is irresistibly attracted to it.

France, the ancient Gaul, is marked out as one of the separate countries of Europe by natural limits on three of its sides: these are, the channel between it and England on the north; the bay of Biscay (a portion of the Atlantic ocean) on the west; and the Pyrenean mountains and Mediterranean sea on the south. It remained to draw the connecting eastern line, and this it has cost deluges of blood to establish. Long fluctuating on the borders of Italy, Germany, and the Netherlands, the struggles of the revolution have at length advanced it to the Alps, the Jura, the Rhine, and the Maes. But the emperor Napoleon seems inclined to extend the boundaries of France beyond these limits, and it still remains doubtful where the boundaries of this country will be finally fixed.

This extensive tract occupies the middle region of the temperate zone, chiefly between the 43d and 51st degrees of N. latitude, and its greatest breadth from east to west is not much inferior to its length. The face of country within such a compass cannot but be much diversified; but upon the whole it tends to a level. Elevations deserving the name of mountains occur only about the centre of France, in Auvergne, thence running in a long narrow ridge, chiefly bearing the name of the Cevennes, in a south-western direction, till they terminate in the Pyrenees: a branch proceeding from this ridge in a north-westerly line forms the lofty Cantal and Mont d'Or. On the eastern border, the low and rounded chain of the Vosges begins

on the frontiers of Champagne and Franche-comté, and, running southwards parallel to the course of the Rhine, terminates in the Jura. If Savoy be now regarded as indissolubly annexed to France, the loftiest chain of the Alps, containing Mont Blanc, Mont Cenis, and the neighbouring heights, are in her possession. Branches of the Alps also overspread the county of Provence. The Pyrenees give a mountainous character to all the French departments on their border. Bretagne or Britany is a hilly country with extensive heaths.

Of the absolutely level tracts, that of the French Netherlands has already been described. On the western side, extensive morasses occur in the Vendée and the adjacent districts. From the mouth of the Garonne to the Spanish border the coast consists of a flat, sandy and barren tract, called the landes. The other parts of France are in general agreeably varied with gentle risings and depressions.

Numerous rivers spread like veins through the whole country, diffusing beauty and fertility as they pass. Most of the rivers take their rise in the middle ridge above described, and discharge their contents into the bay of Biscay. The principal of them is the Loire, a noble stream, which, from its source in Languedoc, holds a northern course as far as Orleans, where it turns due west, and, passing Tours, enters the sea below Nantes. It receives most of the rivers from the central parts of France, some of which are considerable. Its course is estimated at 430 miles, and it is navigable to the distance of 80 or 90 miles from its source. The tract of country watered by the Loire and its tributaries is accounted the finest in France.

Further to the south the united Dordogne and Garonne enter the sea by a broad estuary below Bourdeaux. The first of these rises in the mountains of Auvergne; the second in the Pyrenees; and they carry off the waters of all the intermediate space.

The principal river emptying itself into the British channel is the Seine, which, rising in Burgundy, takes its way through beautiful and romantic valleys to Paris. Thence, in a very winding course, augmented by the Marne and several other

rivers from the north-east, it flows on to Rouen, below which it reaches the sea at Havre de Grace.

The Meuse has already been mentioned as a river of the Netherlands: its source is in Lorraine. The Moselle, which rises in the hills of Alsace, and joins the Rhine at Coblenz, is now become through all its course a French river.

The great stream of the south of France is the Rhone. Its source in Switzerland was pointed out under that article. After issuing from the lake of Geneva, it takes a western course till it arrives at Lyons, where it is joined by the Saone, an equal ally rather than a tributary. This river forces the Rhone into its own direction, which it thenceforth holds with little deviation, till it enters the Mediterranean by several mouths. The Rhone receives all the streams from the middle and south-eastern part of France. One of the principal of these is the Durance, which, from its head in the Alps, flowing across Provence, makes its junction near Avignon.

France is blessed with a climate more favourable, perhaps, on the whole, to the sustenance and pleasure of human life than any other in Europe. The extent of latitude which it occupies produces considerable variation of temperature; but the greater part of it lies within the middle portion of the temperate zone. The districts adjacent to the British channel, resemble the opposite counties of England in coolness and moisture. This region is not genial to the vine, but is highly favourable both to arable and pasturage. Normandy is scarcely distinguishable in appearance and products from the best counties of England; and its apple-orchards, like those of Devonshire, afford the common beverage of the inhabitants. The middle zone of France from side to side enjoys a climate equally adapted to the culture of the vine and other fine fruits, and to the growth of grain. The high country of Auvergne, however, makes a considerable deduction from the fertility and agreeableness of this region, being a bleak and sterile tract. Nor are the districts of Champagne and Burgundy among the more desirable countries, though so much celebrated for their vineyards. The wines of France have less body than those of the more southern countries, but are light and delicate, and

ing in volatile particles. Those of the districts above-mentioned are most valued by the natives, while the rougher clarets of Gascony chiefly supply the foreign demand, and are used in the distillation of brandy. The principal evil attending the middle of France is the violent hail storms, which often lay waste the hopes of the year.

The southern portion of France displays the power of increased solar influence, in its products of the olive, maize, and vine; and also in the darkened hue of its inhabitants, and in the absence of verdure from the landscape during the summer and autumnal months. To the fine fruits of this latitude is added the orange, but only at the extreme southern point. The Flora of this region is augmented by many natives of southern Europe; and the common aromatics acquire a high flavour, and afford an object of culture on account of the essences and distilled liquors prepared from them. The plague of insects accompanies these tokens of a warmer sun; and storms rage with peculiar violence in its mountainous tracts. The soil of many districts is far from rich, and agriculture flourishes much less than in the northern departments.

Extensive forests are still seen in various parts of France. Wood being almost the sole fuel as yet in use, large tracts are necessarily devoted to the raising of a regular supply; and the pleasures of the chase, with the advantages derived from plenty of game, were objects of importance to the feudal lords, who were the principal landholders before the revolution. The forests and mountains give shelter to several wild animals; and no severe winter passes without considerable mischief from troops of wolves descending from the Alps, Pyrenees, and Cevennes.

It is a fault in the agricultural system of France, that domestic animals are reared in a very inadequate proportion to the growth of grain; a circumstance which has been owing to the poverty of the cultivators of the soil. To the same cause, and the little disposition of the higher orders to a rural life and its occupations, may probably be ascribed the fact that there is no one breed of any domestic animal of distinguished excellence in the country. The horned cattle of some parts,



however, are good, and the markets of Paris are well supplied with beef. In Provence and Languedoc are large flocks of sheep, which, like those of Spain, are migratory, and change their pastures according to the season ; but they are not famous for fineness of wool.

France, within its ancient limits, abounds less with mineral riches than many other European countries ; it is, however, not destitute of the most useful of these products. Britany affords considerable quantities of lead, which metal is also met with in the Vosges mountains, and in the maritime Alps. The district of Vosges, chiefly comprehending the ancient Alsace, is one of the most metallic in the French dominions, and yields silver, copper, lead, iron, quicksilver, cobalt, and manganese. The former German part of this mountainous chain is particularly rich in metals. Iron is diffused over many of the hilly districts, especially in the northern departments. Coal exists in many parts of France ; and the signal advantages derived from this substance in Great Britain have caused an active search to be made for it in this country. Many coal mines are said to be now in working ; yet it may be doubted whether the quality is so good, or the operations for raising it conducted in so spirited and intelligent a manner, as in England. A prejudice prevails against its use as domestic fuel ; whence it seems hitherto to have been chiefly employed in the hardware manufactures. Jet, a kindred production of nature, has been dug in large quantities in Languedoc. Freestone for building is very common. Paris, in particular, has inexhaustible quarries of it, of excellent quality ; and its neighbourhood abounds with gypsum, thence usually called plaster of Paris. A variety of beautiful marbles occurs in the Pyrenees ; and precious stones of various kinds are found in different parts.

Mineral waters, both warm and cold, are not rare in the mountainous districts. The hot-baths of Barege, at the foot of the Pyrenees, are particularly celebrated.

A country upon the whole so well adapted for the residence of man has from early times possessed a large population, and been inured to all the forms and institutions of civil life. The French people are chiefly a compound of Celtic and Gothic

stock ; but the long continuance of the Roman dominion in Gaul must have given a strong Italian infusion, since it was able to introduce a language with a Latin basis. But, whatever were the diversities of origin, the natives of France have amalgamated into a mass possessing a national character as distinct and clearly marked as that of any numerous community in the civilized parts of the globe. The essence of this character is an exuberance of animal spirits, producing excess of mobility, and a perpetual restless activity. They are quick, ingenious, inventive, fertile in expedients, buoyant against difficulty or adversity ; but mutable, trifling, confident, vain, credulous, and incapable of moderation. With much that renders them amiable in society, as readiness to oblige, delicate attentions, kind sympathy, and lively sensibility, they are often of insecure commerce from laxity of principle, unmeaning professions, jealous irritability, and a strong propensity to intrigue. Their feelings of every kind verge to excess ; and there is nothing, either good or bad, of which they are not capable, under the influence of their impetuous ardour. No cabinet has excited so much disturbance among the neighbouring states, from ambition and the spirit of intermeddling, as that of France ; and we have seen that no change of political system at home has made an alteration in their foreign policy. The French, beyond all people, are the creatures of society ; by it their manners and sentiments are fashioned, and in it are centred their chief pleasures and gratifications. They would excel all nations in the art of conversation, were not the desire of shining too universal. The love of glory operates upon them with extraordinary force and stimulates them to great exertions ; but it is often attended with empty ostentation and gasconade.

Although a passion for novelty is apt to lead them into a multiplicity and rapid change of pursuits, yet they are capable of long and steady application when deeply interested in an object ; and in every department of science and art they have attained a high degree of perfection. Even the mathematical sciences have been cultivated by them with a success not inferior to that of any other nation ; and at present they can boast

of mathematicians who are probably superior to any in Europe. Their writers have rendered their language familiar to the lovers of literature throughout Europe ; and in the value of their productions they have no equals among the moderns, with the sole exception of the English. Their taste in letters is, upon the whole, purer than in the fine arts, in which they are generally marked by superabundance of ornament and an affected manner.

The French, naturally inquisitive and prone to discussion, had proceeded far in emancipating their minds from the shackles of an arbitrary system of government and religion, before any correspondent change had taken place in their public institutions : at the same time, refined luxury and general dissipation had relaxed the bands of morality, and accumulated abuse and disorder in every department. Financial difficulties brought on a necessity for reform ; and when the idea of change was once admitted, it was not in the national character to proceed in it with caution and moderation. Violent struggles between old and new principles terminated in a revolution, in which monarchy, established religion, and every institution sanctioned by age and veneration, went to wreck. The events of this dreadful period displayed prodigious energy in the nation, but accompanied with a ferocity and disregard of justice and humanity which involved the cause of reform and its supporters in indelible disgrace. A host of foreign foes united to suppress the dangerous flame, or to make advantage of the confusion ; but the vigour of the new republic not only resisted all assaults, but carried its conquering arms into the surrounding countries, and finally extended the limits of France further than her most ambitious monarchs had ever attempted. This success, however, was produced by exertions of authority which subverted every thing free or republican in the constitution, and prepared the way for a military despotism. The most successful of the generals, a man of a daring genius and capacious views, seized the reins ; and first under the title of chief consul, exercised, without control, the authority of the nominal republic. Europe has since witnessed the astonishing spectacle of the same man, an obscure Corsican by birth, causing

himself to be declared emperor, with hereditary succession in his own family, crowned by the pope, recognized by all orders of the state, and thus founding a new dynasty, while the relics of the Bourbons are wandering from country to country as exiles. The Roman catholic religion has been re-established (with a full toleration, however, to the two principal protestant sects); a kind of new nobility has been instituted; arbitrary government, and all the pageantry of a court, have been restored; and it seems at present to be an allowed political maxim, that the French are incapable of the blessings of a free constitution.

The number of people now united under the dominion of France probably exceeds thirty millions; a population under one head which no power in Europe nearly equals, Russia excepted. The military force is fully adequate to this number; the public revenues must be very considerable; and if the natural advantages of the country be considered, in connection with the spirit of the nation, France must undoubtedly be regarded as the head of the continental powers, and a just object of terror to those which are within the reach of her arms. Her influence extends beyond her actual dominion; and Spain, Italy, Switzerland, and Holland, move in subservience to her designs. The naval supremacy of Great Britain is the only check to her sway over all the southern part of Europe.

France has at different periods made a figure as a commercial and maritime power; but wars with England, and the military disposition of the people, have repeatedly brought her trade and navy to a very low condition. Her principal branch of colonial commerce has been that of the West Indies, where she possessed the most valuable part of the great and rich island of St. Domingo, with some other islands, and a settlement on the South-American continent. St. Domingo is at present in the hands of the revolted negroes, who, taking advantage of the war with England, rose in arms, and expelled or exterminated their masters. What will be the state of the other colonies can only be known at a peace. In the East Indies she holds the isles of France and Bourbon, but has lost her settlements on the coast of Coromandel.

The French empire possesses great advantages for manufactures ; materials, population, industry, skill, and ready communication with the neighbouring countries ; and a pacific system of policy directed to that object would certainly be attended with great accessions of wealth and internal improvement. There is scarcely a branch of manufacture which has not been pursued in some parts of the country, and many of them have at different periods been in a flourishing state. At present French goods are not frequently seen in foreign markets. The wines and brandies of Bourdeaux, the silks of Lyons, the lace and linens of Flanders, the woollens of Normandy and Picardy, the plate-glass, porcelain, and other articles of elegant luxury of the metropolis and its vicinity, are best known in commerce. The internal communication is aided by the navigable rivers, and by several canals, of which that of Languedoc, connecting the bay of Biscay with the Mediterranean, was one of the wonders of the age of Lewis XIV.

Paris, the capital of this extensive empire, ranks next to London among the European cities in point of population, but falls considerably short of it, the last enumeration giving somewhat fewer than 548000 inhabitants. As the seat of refined luxury, cultivated society, elegant amusements, and splendour combined with taste, it claims the first place. By the pillage of conquest it has become the receptacle of the noblest productions of art in all ages and countries, which are liberally offered to the public view in its unrivalled gallery of the Louvre. It abounds in grand public institutions and in sumptuous edifices ; but in convenience, cleanliness, and the diffusion of opulence and comfort, it cannot vie with the rival metropolis. It is merely the political head of the empire, and possesses no commerce but what depends upon the demands of a great city, the resort of the rich and curious from all quarters.

Lyons, accounted the second city in France, owed its great wealth, splendour and population, to its rich manufactures of gold and silver stuffs and silk. It suffered greatly in the revolution, and is said still to remain much below its former prosperity ; yet it now reckons above 100000 inhabitants. Marseilles and Bourdeaux each equal Lyons in population. The

former is the chief Mediterranean port, and the centre of the Levant trade, which has always been a principal branch of French commerce ; the latter has a great share in the West India trade, and is the chief place of exportation for wine. Both these are towns of great architectural magnificence. Rouen, the capital of Normandy, maintains a great population by its various manufactures. Abbeville, in Picardy, is the centre of the woollen manufacture. Nantes is the principal commercial port in Britany ; but Brest, in the same province, is of greater consequence, on account of its vast naval arsenals, and its fine and impregnable harbour, the usual station of the French channel fleet. Toulon, on the opposite side of France, bears the same relation to the naval force in the Mediterranean. Lille, the capital of French Flanders, and Valenciennes, in the same province, are noted for their fortifications ; and the latter for its fine laces and cambrics.

Many other towns and cities in France are of ancient fame for their universities, provincial judicatories, or other circumstances ; but the changes of the times have reduced most of these to a state of decline. In general, the expectations of augmented prosperity seem to be placed chiefly upon the newly acquired dominions in the Netherlands, Germany, and Italy, which, indeed, exhibit a much more flourishing appearance than France itself. But the revolutionary period can scarcely be considered as yet terminated ; and years of peace and settled government must elapse before this empire can display what in future it is destined to become.

## SPAIN.

THE great peninsula which distinguishes the southwestern part of Europe is strongly marked by nature for one of its distinct portions, being surrounded by the Atlantic ocean and Mediterranean sea on all sides, except where the lofty chain of the Pyrenees, running from sea to sea, separates it from France.

It does not appear, however, that at any period the whole of this region was possessed by a single nation. The Romans and Carthaginians, in their various expeditions, either conquered or made alliance with them; and after the extinction of these two nations it was divided between several christian and mahometan princes. When the whole of present Spain was united into one monarchy under Ferdinand and Isabella, and their successors, a considerable portion of the western side of the peninsula existed as a separate kingdom by the name of Portugal. This portion was annexed to Spain by conquest during sixty years of the 16th and 17th centuries, but was afterwards recovered by the natives, and has ever since formed a distinct sovereignty. This separation is the more extraordinary, as the boundary between the two countries is almost entirely artificial, and Portugal bears a small proportion to Spain in extent and population. Its existence attests the weakness and impolicy of the latter government.

Spain extends from the 36th to beyond the 43d degree of N. latitude. Its extent from east to west on the northern side, where it quite crosses the peninsula, is somewhat greater; but this is abridged on proceeding southward, both by the narrowing of the whole peninsula, and by the subtraction of that slip of land which constitutes Portugal.

The country wears a different aspect in different parts, but upon the whole may be regarded as mountainous. Long chains

of hills run across the peninsula, in a direction, for the most part, from north-east to south-west. The Pyrenees, after completing at the bay of Biscay the barrier between France and Spain, send off a branch, which runs parallel to the sea-coast, and at no great distance from it, along the whole northern side, giving a mountainous character to those provinces of Spain. From about the middle of this chain a branch runs inward, first in a south-eastern direction, and then, turning to the south-west, takes an irregular waving course quite across Spain and Portugal, till it terminates in the promontory called the Rock of Lisbon. At successive distances to the south of this may be traced three other nearly parallel chains, which cross all the central and southern provinces of Spain, the last of them terminating in the rock of Gibraltar. There are besides some scattered ridges on the eastern side of Spain, and one remarkable solitary mountain near Barcelona, called Montserrat, or the Sawed-mountain, from its jagged pyramidal summits.

In all countries the origin and course of the rivers are determined by the position of the mountains; and this fact is peculiarly conspicuous in those of Spain. They have their source in general far up in the country, near the head of those long mountainous chains, and are interposed between them, following their line of direction from east to west. Of these the most northerly is the Douro, which, rising in the hills of Old Castille, receives a number of streams from that province, and those of Burgos and Leon; and, entering Portugal a little beyond Zamora, makes its exit in the Atlantic ocean at Oporto.

Next occurs the Tajo or Tagus, the source of which is in the Toledan chain, near the borders of Arragon. It crosses New Castille and Estremadura, and discharges itself into the Atlantic by a noble estuary below Lisbon. The course of this fine river is computed at 450 miles, which is equalled by no other in the peninsula.

The principal head of the Guadiana is said to be in the wild mountains of La Mancha, called Sierra Morena; but it draws several tributary waters from the Toledan chain. From Estremadura it enters Portugal, where turning directly south, it forms the limit between Algarve and Andalusia, and joins the



**Atlantic near Tavora.** In some parts of its course it sinks into the calcareous soil, and after a subterraneous passage of some length, again issues to day. The Guadalquiver rises in the mountains of La Mancha, and after watering the whole extent of the rich province of Andalusia, passes Seville and falls into the bay of Cadiz.

The eastern side of Spain is fertilized by many streams, but of little length of course. The principal is the Ebro, the ancient Iberus, which derives its springs from the mountains of Asturia and Biscay, and, crossing the province of Arragon, mixes with the Mediterranean below Tortosa.

The interior of Spain is for the most part an elevated country, with a light soil, of little fertility except in the immediate tract of the rivers. The long ranges of its hills consist either of arid wastes of sand, of sand-stone and ferruginous rubble, of dry calcareous downs, or of moist, rough, granitic ridges, covered with a scanty vegetable mould. Gypsum is frequent, and on lixiviation produces sea-salt with a large admixture of nitre. Many natural forests of considerable extent are met with; but they have neither the majestic loftiness, nor the depth of shade, of those in the more northern climates. The trees are of thin foliage and of mean growth; but many of them are of the mast-bearing kind, and the sweet acorns and chesnuts of the woods afford the unbought food of the primitive ages to the rustic inhabitants.

Though the latitude of Spain places it among the warmest climates of the temperate zone; yet, since heat is determined as much by elevation of surface as by distance from the pole, the central and hilly parts are subject to a considerable degree of winter-cold. Even the most southern range of mountains has obtained the name of Sierra Nevada, or the Snowy Ridge. The sea-cost is likewise refreshed by breezes which temper the rays of the sun as far as they reach. The heat, however, is great during the summer months in the valleys and low grounds, and its effects are apparent from the earliness of the seasons, and the variety and richness of the vegetable products. The natural Flora of this peninsula is extremely copious, as it comprises both the plants of northern Europe, and of its own

proper latitudes. The cultivated products are proportionally various, extending from the common species of grain and legumes, to maize, olives, vines, figs, oranges, lemons, and the sugar-cane. Scarcely any part of Europe can vie with the vales on the eastern coast for inexhaustible fertility, and perpetual succession of crops ; and notwithstanding the large tracts of parched and barren ground, the country would be capable of amply feeding its inhabitants, if the skill and industry of the cultivators were proportional to the bounty of nature.

Of domestic animals the Spanish horse has obtained great reputation for spirit, elegance of form, and graceful movements. The asses are of remarkable size and relative beauty ; and the mules are superior to those of other countries, and of more general use. The Spanish sheep produce the finest wool in Europe, and are equally valued for the delicacy of their flesh. The management of the flocks is a national concern, regulated by a fixed code of laws. They travel in vast numbers from province to province, pasturing as they go in extensive sheep-walks left vacant for the purpose. They belong to the king and to some of the first of the nobility. Though their wool is a valuable object of commerce, yet it is supposed that the interests of agriculture are too much sacrificed to the breeding of sheep, which is rather favoured by prejudice and national indolence than justified by an intelligent policy.

Spain was anciently considered as surpassing most European countries in its mineral riches. The auriferous sands of the Tagus were of great fame, and the silver mines, first opened by the great Carthaginian general, Hannibal, were singularly productive. The trans-atlantic wealth of which Spain became possessed seems to have checked the mining adventures at home ; yet almost all the metals are still extracted in some parts of the country. In the Sierra Morena silver mines are worked. At Almaden, in La Mancha, are valuable mines of quicksilver, the produce of which is chiefly sent to South America, as a medium for extracting the precious metals of that country from their ores. Copper-ore is dug on the frontier of Portugal ; tin occurs in Galicia ; lead in various districts ; and iron abundantly, and of the finest quality : the steel of Biscay is famous

throughout Europe. Antimony, cobalt, calamine, various marbles, jet, amber, rock-salt, and other rare products, are enumerated among the minerals of this country.

The human race in Spain is derived from various origins, Celtic, Gothic, Roman, African, &c. and is more mingled than in most European countries. Hence the national character appears in very different colours in its different provinces. Those on the northern side, which are hilly and of a moderate temperature, are inhabited by an industrious race, martial, enterprising, and jealous of their rights and privileges. The central and southern districts feel the influence of a hot climate, and probably of a different origin, and are distinguished by stately gravity and pride in the superior and middle ranks, and by remarkable indolence in all. The Spanish gravity, however, does not partake of coldness or insensibility: on the contrary, the Spaniards have warm passions and a lofty sense of personal dignity; and though content to be poor rather than engage in active exertions, they spurn at contumely. In general, they are sober, faithful, and honest, superstitious and prejudiced in a high degree, revengeful and severe, but principled and well-intentioned.

The Roman catholic religion appears in Spain with the excess of bigotry and intolerance; and the rigours of its inquisition have excited a horror throughout Europe, which seems at length to have shamed it into greater lenity. In no country is the triumph of the priesthood more complete; and devotion and laziness have united in peopling innumerable monasteries and nunneries. Many of the bishoprics and other ecclesiastical preferments are extremely rich, and a great share of the wealth of the country is lavished in the decorations of churches, or spent in the maintenance of the clergy.

The government, which once possessed a great share of freedom, was rendered arbitrary by the power of Charles V, and the tyranny of his son Philip II, and every vestige of liberty has been obliterated. In no country have foreigners exercised more control, and in none have abuses been permitted to prevail to a greater degree. To the jealous and arbitrary spirit of the government, and the imbecility of a worn-out race of monarchs,

rather than to the temper of the nation, is to be attributed that degradation into which Spain has fallen within the two last centuries, and which has sunk her below almost every other European country in point of information, improvement, arts, and arms. While science and literature have been making continual progress through the greater part of Europe, Spain has rather gone backward than advanced; and scarcely<sup>o</sup> a single work of merit enough to attract foreign notice has issued from her press. Yet that this is not owing to national defect of genius, many former productions sufficiently prove. The Spanish language is well adapted to literary purposes, being singularly energetic and sonorous. It is one of the dialects formed upon a Latin basis, but has a considerable admixture of Moorish or Arabic words. In the province of Biscay one of the Celtic tongues is the common speech.

The decline of this country was accelerated by two very different events. The first was the expulsion of the Moors, who were possessed of a great part of the south of Spain, which they rendered flourishing by their industry and arts. Vanquished by the arms of Ferdinand and Isabella, they were obliged to quit the kingdom; and although this measure put an end to a long series of civil wars, yet it abandoned to desolation large tracts of land which had been rendered fertile and populous in their hands. The other event was the discovery of America by Columbus, under the auspices of the same monarchs, who acquired by it a greater accession of wealth and territory than any crown had before obtained. But the sudden tide of riches that poured in from this new world, and the unlimited spirit of foreign adventure that it excited, relaxed all the nerves of domestic industry, and finally reduced Spain to be little more than the channel through which the precious metals were distributed to the manufacturing and commercial states around her.

Many attempts, however, have been made to revive Spanish industry, and enable the mother-country at least to supply the wants of its colonies. Various manufactures have been introduced, some of which are flourishing. Those of silk, cotton, wool, and hardware are considerable in the northern provinces. Many other branches have been undertaken as royal concerns;

but these have been almost universally mismanaged, and have had the effect of monopolies in discouraging competition. The exports of Spain in native products are chiefly wine, of which a variety of kinds is made, oil, fruit, raw silk, wool, dressed leather, and the alkaline salt called barilla. Corn is almost every year an object of importation.

In population Spain is much below the proportion of its extent and means ; the number of people is stated at about eleven millions. Its revenues are large, yet the crown is poor ; and plans for the public advantage usually fail for want of due supplies. The army is neither numerous nor formidable. The navy is more respectable ; but its sailors are not distinguished either for courage or discipline.

Madrid, the capital, is unfavourably situated in the midst of a naked and steril country, on the banks of a rivulet which the summer heats dry up. It possesses some fine buildings, public and private, but is a very expensive and undesirable residence. Its institutions for art and science are of little repute ; and it has no commerce, except that which is created by the presence of a court, and the conflux of the nobility.

Many of the inland cities, which were once the capitals of separate kingdoms, and are still the chief towns of provinces, exhibit tokens of former grandeur, but have much declined in wealth and population. Granada, one of the principal of these, is famous for its fine remains of Moorish architecture. The sea-ports alone wear the appearance of prosperity. Seville, reckoned the first city in Spain, was the centre of the American commerce, till it was removed to the more maritime situation of Cadiz. It is, however, a splendid and populous place thriving by its manufactures of silk and stuff. Cadiz, built on an island in a bay to the south of the estuary of the Guadalquivir, is the first commercial port, and the deposit of the wealth of the American mines. It also possesses arsenals and docks for the royal navy. Malaga is distinguished for the wines and fruit which are the produce of its neighbourhood, and are exported from its harbour.

Barcelona, the capital of Catalonia, enjoys the credit and advantage of more industry than any other Spanish town, con-

nected with a spirit of freedom and independence for which it has always been noted. Its manufactures of silk, cotton, wool, and hardware are carried on with vigour, and employ a numerous population, and its port is the resort of trading vessels from most commercial states. Corunna, in Galicia, has the advantage of a fine harbour, but the surrounding country affords few objects of traffic. Near it is the naval station of Ferrol. Bilboa, enlivened by the active and enterprising disposition of the Biscayners, is a flourishing seat of commerce.

The strongest fortress in Spain, perhaps in the world, Gibraltar, seated on a rock at the narrow entrance of the Mediterranean, has long been in the possession of England, and has defied the most vigorous attempts of Spain, assisted by France, to restore it to its natural master.

Spain is possessed of three islands in the Mediterranean, Majorca or Mallorca, Minorca, and Ivica or Eviza, anciently known by the name of the Balearic isles, and celebrated for their slingers. In products they resemble the adjacent continent : their fruits and honey are particularly esteemed.

The vast colonial possessions of Spain, in the value of which she surpasses every other country, will be treated of under the quarters of the world to which they geographically belong.

## PORTUGAL.

THIS country, which nearly corresponds with the ancient Lusitania, occupies the western side of the Spanish peninsula, with the exception of the Spanish province of Galicia, which bounds it to the north. It is of an oblong form, extending 360 miles from north to south, with a breadth of about 120. The rivers Minho, Douro, and Guadiana give it a natural boundary only for a short space; the general limit between it and Spain is entirely artificial.

Thus blended by nature with Spain, its external appearance cannot be expected to be very different. One of the principal mountainous ridges of Spain has already been traced across the middle of Portugal. The north-eastern corner has a cluster of mountains of its own; and the little province of Algarve in the south is separated from Alenteio by a short ridge. In general, the country is much diversified in its surface, and affords many romantic and picturesque situations.

The tracks of the great Spanish rivers which cross it have been described. To the Tagus it may lay a plausible claim, as possessing so much of the latter part of its course, and crowning its bank with its capital. The breadth of Portugal does not admit any considerable native river: the only one deserving mention is the Mondego, which, passing the city of Coimbra, enters the sea between the Douro and the Tagus.

The soil of Portugal is for the most part light and shallow; it is, however, highly favourable to the vine and other fruit-trees; and, when sufficiently watered, is capable of producing abundantly every thing for the sustenance of man. The climate ranks with the most delicious and salubrious of those in the southern temperate latitudes, the heats being moderated by refreshing breezes and showers from the Atlantic. Invalids

from the northern countries pass the winter and spring at Lisbon with more advantage than in most of their usual resorts. From regions buried in frost and snow a short voyage conveys them to bright skies and balmy air, perfumed by the orange and myrtle, and to a face of nature decorated with the charms of the vernal season.

The native vegetables of this country are in general those of Spain. Of the trees none is so frequent as the cork-tree, which forms woods of considerable extent. Wild heaths occupy large tracts in the interior parts, overrun with a variety of shrubby plants, especially the Gum Cistus, which, when in flower, whitens the landscape for miles around.

Of mineral productions Portugal is said to possess as great a variety as Spain. The Lusitanian mines were anciently of great fame; but want of industry, scarcity of fuel, and still more the possession of colonial treasures, have caused them to be almost entirely neglected.

The inhabitants of Portugal sensibly exhibit the effects of a warm climate in their dark hue, and in those points of national character which are usually found to accompany the solar influence. These are, warm passions, a strong propensity to revenge, superstition, indolence, abstemiousness, and the habit of submitting contentedly to a very scanty share of the comforts and conveniences of life. There was a period, however, when this small kingdom was the seat of more enterprise than existed in any other portion of Europe. In the earlier part of the 15th century, when the warlike spirit of Portugal was in full exercise from the frequent necessity of defending its independence, some successful expeditions into Africa gave an impulse to maritime adventure, which, favoured by a series of enlightened sovereigns, produced the grand discovery of the passage to India round the cape of Good Hope, and laid open the rich countries of that part of the globe to the arms and commerce of the Portuguese. For a long time nothing seemed capable of resisting their efforts; and by a course of the most splendid actions they rendered their name dreaded throughout the east, and spread their settlements over all its coasts. At the same time they partook of the spoils of the new world by the dis-



covery of Brazil, which they subdued and colonized. At length success produced its usual effect in rendering them tyrannical and effeminate; and the steadier energy of the new Dutch republic stripped them of the greater part of their acquisitions. An arbitrary government and superstitious religion contributed to debase the national character, and Portugal gradually sunk to that place in the scale of nations which alone her extent and population entitle her to preserve. Always in danger of being swallowed up by the nation of which nature seems to have designed her an integral part, she has hitherto been rescued only by the power and influence of her great commercial ally, England; and her precarious independence hangs upon the fate of the moment.

The government of Portugal is an absolute monarchy. Its religion is the Roman catholic, to the minute observances of which the people are strongly addicted, with the usual effect of disregard of the moral duties. The rigour of the inquisition has almost totally extinguished sound learning and useful science, and no where is education more neglected. The Portuguese language is one of the dialects from the Latin stem, and differs from the Spanish in about the same degree as the Low Dutch from the German. Very few literary productions in it have obtained currency out of the country; and at present the greatest supineness seems to prevail with respect to every branch of mental cultivation.

The population of Portugal is differently stated at from 1800000 to upwards of two millions and a half. Its revenue would be considerable, were not its resources, like those of Spain, chiefly expended in purchasing the products of foreign industry. The principal commodity of its own growth for exportation is wine, of which Great Britain takes the greater part. Its wine is for the most part of a strong body, and little prized for delicacy of flavour. Oil, fruit, cork, and a few other native articles, are also among its exports. Its rich colony of Brazil supplies it with the precious metals, sugar, tobacco, and other products of the tropics, both for home consumption, and for foreign trade. Its remaining settlements in the east, and on the coast of Africa, provide other materials of commerce.

and the flag of Portugal is still seen in the eastern and western seas. The Portuguese navy, however, is now of little account ; and its army is inconsiderable, and composed of the worst troops in Europe.

Lisbon, the capital, is nobly situated near the mouth of the Tagus, which affords it a safe and capacious harbour ; whence it is rendered the commercial as well as the civil head of the kingdom. It has many fine edifices, and has been much improved in its plan and style of building since the dreadful earthquake of 1755, which laid the greatest part of it in ruins. Its population is computed at about 200000. Its environs are singularly picturesque, and present some truly grand scenery.

Oporto is well known in commerce as the place whence the greater part of the wine of Portugal (thence called Port) is shipped. Many British mercantile houses are established in it. Coimbra, the ancient seat of an university, is the only other city which deserves mention.

## ITALY.

OF all the countries of Europe Italy has the greatest share of fame accumulated upon it. Anciently the seat of one of the mightiest empires in the world, in later times that of an ecclesiastical dominion scarcely less extensive, filled with the relics of former grandeur and the master-pieces of modern art, abounding in natural beauties, and ennobled by the pens of poets and historians, it has interested curiosity of every kind, and been trod with equal rapture by the scholar, the artist, and the lover of nature.

Italy is an extensive peninsula, stretching in a direction from north-west to south-east, surrounded by the Mediterranean and Adriatic seas on all parts except the north, where a barrier of the loftiest mountains in Europe, the Alps, separates it by an indistinct boundary from France, Switzerland, and Germany. Although French conquest has in one part leaped this barrier, and endeavoured to confound a portion of the Italian territory with the natural dominion of France, yet the geographical designation of these districts must remain unchanged. Italy extends from the 38th to near the 47th degree of N. latitude; but on account of the obliquity of its position its length is considerably greater than this range of latitude would imply. Its northern extremity forms a kind of broad round head, which soon contracts to proportionally narrow dimensions, and the whole inferior portion somewhat resembles the human leg, ending in a toe at the southern point.

The surface of the land in Italy is very much diversified, and there are few parts in which hill or mountain does not enter into an extended prospect. The region of the Alps stretching from sea to sea fills with mountainous scenery a long sweep of country in the north, forming the grand outwork to the rich plain of Lombardy. From that part of the Alps which comes

down to the gulf of Genoa a chain of hills commences, which, under the name of the Apennines, accompanies the whole length of Italy at nearly an equal distance from both seas, till it terminates abruptly in the very toe. Before it reaches its southern extremity, it sends off a branch to the east which extends into the projecting point of land called the heel or spur of Italy. The famous volcanic mountain Vesuvius, impending over the gulf of Naples, is detached from the Apennine chain.

As on the Helvetian side of the Alps, so on the Italian, the waters collected in the lofty region of snow and tempest form several fine lakes in the rocky bosoms between the hills. The Lago Maggiore, called also the Lake of Locarno, receives the waters of several others, among which is the Lake of Lugano : in this are the Borromean isles, decorated with palaces and gardens, and resembling the enchanted scenes of romance. The lakes of Como, of Iseo, and of Garda follow in order on proceeding eastwards, all of which extend in length from north to south, with a narrow proportional breadth. The Apennines also enclose several lakes, but of inferior magnitude.

The rivers of the north of Italy all rise in some part of the encircling chain, and coalesce as they advance. The greater number of them are tributaries to the Po (the ancient Padus and Eridanus) a river celebrated in history and fable, and the most considerable in Italy for length of course and quantity of water. Rising in the confines of Italy and France, it descends from the centre of the western Alps, and is augmented by numerous Alpine torrents before it washes the walls of Turin. As it flows onward, it receives perpetual accessions, among which the most important are the Tanaro, from the south, the Doria, Tesino, Adda, and Oglio from the north, which latter bring to the Po the tribute of all the above-mentioned sub-alpine lakes : at length, through the flat country of the Ferrarese, intersected by numberless communicating channels, it discharges itself by several mouths into the upper end of the Adriatic sea. Not far to the north of its termination the Adige makes a separate entrance into the same sea, after a considerable length of course from the Tyrolese Alps, through the Venetian states, by the city of Verona.

The central and southern part of Italy does not afford room for large rivers, since, from their origin in the Apennine chain, they cannot have far to flow into the sea on either side. The Arno, passing the delicious vale of its name, washes Florence, and enters the gulf of Genoa below Pisa. The Tiber, a name inseparable from that of the illustrious metropolis which crowns its banks, rising in the Apennine on the eastern side of Italy, passes Perugia, and winding amidst the mountains, augmented by many torrents, reaches Rome, not far below which it pours its waters into the Mediterranean. Many rivulets (for they deserve no higher title) in the remaining part of Italy have acquired celebrity from the events associated with their names, but are insignificant objects in the topography of the country.

The climate of Italy must necessarily be various in such an extent of latitude and diversity of situation. The eternal snows of the highest Alps indicate the severity of cold which reigns there, and which cannot but influence the subjacent regions. Accordingly the rigours of winter are occasionally felt through all the northern broad part of Italy, termed Lombardy. The Apennine chain, though much lower, is subject to a considerable degree of cold; and Soracte clad in snow is still no unusual spectacle to the Romans. It is in the southern part of Italy alone, at the mild Parthenope or soft Tarentum, that the luxury of a warm winter can be fully enjoyed. The influence of a southern sun, however, generally characterizes the climate; and in sheltered situations great heat prevails during the summer and autumnal months. A peculiar degree of brightness and clearness has been attributed to the Italian atmosphere; but probably only in comparison with that of the more northern countries, whence the principal visitors of Italy and admirers of the works of its painters have arrived. It is difficult otherwise to conceive how a peninsula drawn out between two seas, and divided by a mountainous ridge, should be distinguished for brilliant and unclouded skies; and, in fact, its low and marshy situations are annually infested with noxious vapours, which imply a great degree of moisture and impurity in the atmosphere.

All the productions of the southern part of the temperate zone are yielded in high perfection by the different soils and latitudes

of Italy. The well-watered plains of Lombardy rival in fertility the happiest regions of the globe, and have at all times supported a numerous population. Besides the usual objects of culture, they are celebrated for their rich pastures, feeding numerous herds of cattle, from the milk of which is made the noted Parmesan and Lodesan cheese. Great skill is shown in the embankments of those parts, by means of which inundations are prevented and occasional supplies of water are admitted to the lands in the dry season. Italy in general produces all vegetable articles for human use, from the common grains, to maize and rice; from the vine, the olive, the orange, and the mulberry, to the cotton-shrub and sugar-cane.

The buffalo, originally imported from Africa, is reared in Italy. Some of the breeds of horned cattle are very fine, and the sheep of the southern parts retain their ancient fame for fineness of wool. The Neapolitan horses are in esteem, particularly for state carriages and for mounting cavalry.

The mineral treasures of this country exist chiefly in the declivities of the Alps, where they are so various and abundant, that Piedmont is affirmed to be scarcely inferior to Upper Hungary in opulence of this kind. Gold is not unfrequently found in the beds of its torrents; and most of the metals and semi-metals occur in this and other parts of the sub-alpine region. It does not appear, however, that the Italian mines are wrought to the same extent with those of other mineral countries. The Tuscan Apennines contain many valuable ores; and the marbles of Florence, Sienna, and several other parts, are distinguished for their beauty and curious variegations. Alum and sulphur are abundant in some districts; and thermal and other medicinal waters occur in different places.

No country in Europe has undergone more changes and revolutions with respect to its inhabitants than Italy. From remote antiquity it was possessed by a number of independent communities, several of them colonies from the neighbouring countries, which, after long struggles, were finally united under the dominion of that wonderful state, the Roman republic. When this overgrown power fell in pieces, Italy was shared by different masters, and Rome itself was changed from the

head of a temporal to that of a spiritual empire. The German representatives of the Roman emperors exercised a precarious authority in Italy, which at length ended in the possession, by the house of Austria, of some states in the northern part; while the rest of the country became divided into some independent principalities and republics, the kingdoms of Sardinia and Naples, and the temporal dominion of the pope. Amidst such a variety of contending powers and involved interests, all the refinements of policy were called into action; and Italy by degrees sunk its martial character in the effeminacy of long civilization, joined with the subtlety and artifice of perpetual jealousy and apprehension. Plans of petty aggrandizement and wary defence occupied the chief attention of its governments; but they were frequently defeated by the rough violence of more potent and enterprising neighbours.

The acuteness of the Italian character was displayed in the very complex and artful construction of its republican constitutions, especially those of Venice, Genoa, and Florence. These states acquired extraordinary opulence by commerce and manufactures; and, notwithstanding many internal commotions, rose to power and renown. Even in those centuries which formed what are called the dark ages, Italy was filled with flourishing towns, and exhibited all the forms of cultivated society.

The Italian genius has also highly distinguished itself in literature and the arts. The classical productions of ancient Rome stand next in estimation to those of Greece, if they do not in some branches excel them; but the Roman artists seem never to have approached the Grecian. When the human mind broke from its long lethargy, after the destruction of the Roman empire, Italy took the lead of the countries of modern Europe in civilization and its attendant ornaments. She first formed out of the wrecks of the Latin tongue a regular and elegant vernacular language, which continues to this day the most beautiful and melodious of the dialects derived from the same source. Works were at an early period composed in it which made the commencement of a modern series of classics, and are still the glory of their age and boast of their nation.

In science, philosophy, and erudition, the Italians rose to eminence while the rest of Europe remained immersed in ignorance and barbarism. In the fine arts of painting, sculpture, and architecture, they established new schools, which vied with the noblest of antiquity, and filled their country with master-pieces, which the artists of other nations are still content to admire and imitate. In the higher walks of painting, particularly, no modern productions are admitted to a competition with those which Italy exhibited more than two centuries ago. The Italian music is absolutely a new creation, and has carried the harmony of sounds far beyond the limits of ancient skill and science. Every delicate ear in Europe may be said to be tuned by it; and the eminence of modern German composers is only that of successful scholars.

But Italy has had her day. With the declension of her political consequence and independence her arts have declined, and she is now rather the repository than the workshop of great performances. Her literature, however, is still respectable; and science, when encouraged, or rather when suffered, finds able and zealous votaries. She is still acute and inventive, elegant and facile.

Of the political pre-eminence of Italy, the establishment of the Roman catholic religion, and the supremacy of the bishop of Rome, its head, may be reckoned the most signal proof. To those who are inclined to speculate on the influence of opinion, and the resources of a crafty policy, when contending with power, no history can be more instructive than that of papal Rome. In its series of elected sovereigns have been many individuals of exalted capacity and invincible spirit, who so well employed the engines of superstition and credulity, as to become the disposers of crowns and the arbiters of nations. This political authority, however, has long sunk under the progress of light and knowledge, and the popes have found sufficient difficulty in preserving their ecclesiastical supremacy. It is still recognised by all the nations professing the catholic religion, and throws a splendour round that former seat of empire, which is still by so numerous a body regarded as the metropolis of the christian world.



In religion the Italians are rather superstitious than bigoted; attached to rites and ceremonies, fond of processions and all the pageantry of devotion, but in general free from the gloomy austerity and fiery zeal which characterize the popery of Spain. Their manners are those of a degenerate and humiliated people; pliant, complimentary, artificial, wary and distrustful, little bound by moral principle, and capable of the blackest crimes, yet amiable and gentle in the common intercourse of society. The influence of climate is discernible in the different shades of character of the several people of Italy. Those of the north, especially among the mountains, resemble the Swiss and Germans in frankness, industry, and a kind of phlegmatic sedateness. Those of Naples are marked with the indolence, the ungoverned passions, and overcharged action, of people living in a warm country. The central parts of Italy exhibit a medium between the two. The martial spirit of the old Romans, and of the petty states who so long resisted their arms, would in vain be sought for among any of the nations of modern Italy, unless perhaps, the Savoyards and Piedmontese; but if it has ceased to breed good soldiers, its generals have acquired great reputation to the present day, and few countries have produced more consummate masters in the art of war.

From the present unsettled and revolutionary state of Italy, a slight survey of its principal cities and districts, and rather with a view to their past than their actual condition, is all that can be attempted. It may be premised, that this is one of the countries of Europe which is supposed most to have declined from its ancient population. Its present number of people, including those in its annexed islands, is estimated at thirteen millions.

SAVOY, as already mentioned, has been made a French department. It is a country of lofty mountains and narrow valleys, some of them exquisitely romantic and beautiful, inhabited by a poor, but simple and honest people, who speak a corrupt dialect of the Italian, and exercise their industry in agriculture and some petty manufactures.

PIEDMONT, now also annexed to France, was the principal possession of the king of Sardinia. It is a diversified country, but upon the whole fertile and rich in products. Its chief town, Turin, is a capital of moderate size, but of great beauty and regularity. This province grows and manufactures a large quantity of silk.

The former dutchy of MILAN is now, with several contiguous districts, formed into a state; first called the Cisalpine republic, but lately erected into a kingdom, of which the new emperor of France has assumed the sovereignty, with the title of king of Italy, made hereditary in his house. This kingdom contains some of the finest and richest territory of the ancient Lombardy, and abounds in the necessities and luxuries of life. The description of a late traveller will give a vivid idea of the culture and appearance of this beautiful tract. "The level country round Milan consists alternately of meadows and corn-fields; the former yield four or five crops, and are partly indebted for their fecundity to the facility of irrigation; the latter, besides a crop of corn, produce another of maize, between which rows of vines interweave their luxuriant branches almost without cultivation." The capital, Milan, a place of great renown, was long the seat of the German emperors in Italy, and afterwards of the Austrian governors. It is very extensive, with many remains of magnificence; but is not proportionally populous. The silk manufacture is its principal employment. The university of Pavia has obtained great reputation from the eminence of its professors, especially in the branches of natural history.

The territories of the republic of VENICE, which formerly comprised all the eastern part of Lombardy, are now shared between the Italian kingdom and the emperor of Austria; the latter of whom possesses the larger portion, together with the famous capital, Venice, built on some low islets at the upper extremity of the Adriatic, and the most remarkable city in Europe for situation and structure. It appears to float upon the surface of the waters, from which it rises majestic with its

domes and palaces, intersected with numerous canals which form its streets. Queen of the Adriatic, and long the first maritime power in that part of the world, it accumulated immense wealth, secured by an inaccessible situation, and by a constitution fenced with all the barriers that could be devised by a vigilant and jealous aristocracy. Venice became the abode of arts, luxury, and freedom of life and manners, and retained a high degree of internal prosperity, even after the principal sources of its commerce were diverted, and its political importance was much diminished. From its territorial possessions it drew large funds for the splendour of the state and the maintenance of the nobility. In real strength, however, it became in process of time an empty name, and finally yielded without resistance to the first appearance of a French invasion. Having thus lost its independence and imagined security, it has few natural advantages to prevent the rapid decline with which it is henceforth threatened. It may retain its manufactures of glass and some other articles, and carry on a commerce with the borders of the Adriatic; but it can never more possess maritime importance.

Padua, the principal city of the former Venetian terra-firma, has an university, long regarded as the most learned and enlightened in Europe, and particularly celebrated as a school of anatomy. Its reputation will scarcely be supported under the Austrian dominion.

GENOA. The great rival of Venice in commerce and naval power was Genoa, a city on a gulf of the Mediterranean, and the lord over a territory consisting of a slip of land between the mountains and the sea. It was a republic, originally more democratical than that of Venice; and, by the industry of its manufactures and the enterprising spirit of its mariners, rose to great opulence, and obtained many foreign possessions, principally on the coasts of the Hellespont and the Black sea. It had long conflicts with Venice, by which it was so much exhausted that it was obliged alternately to submit to the authority of France and of the German Empire. It, however, possessed a nominal independence till the period of the French revo-

lution, during which, after a long siege, it became a conquest of France. Genoa was afterwards placed at the head of a new dependent republic, named the Ligurian, and comprehending, with the former territory of Genoa, other contiguous districts : this, however, has lately been consolidated with France, as an integral part of that empire. The city itself is one of the most splendid in Italy ; and its marble palaces, viewed from the sea, present an architectural spectacle scarcely to be equalled. Its manufactures of silk and velvet are still considerable.

LUCCA, a small republican state to the north of Genoa, deserves honourable notice for the high cultivation of its territory, the uncommon industry of its inhabitants, and their ardent attachment to liberty. It has a great commerce in oil and silk. To what portion of Italy in the new division it is to be annexed, does not yet seem determined ; but it certainly will not be left to present an image of freedom and independence amidst subjugated states.

TUSCANY, the ancient Etruria, has from remote times stood distinguished among the countries of Italy for arts and civilization. It was lately a grand duchy, under a prince of the Austrian family ; but is now, with some accessions, converted into a kingdom. The district of Tuscany is accounted one of the most fertile and agreeable in Italy. Its oil and wine are in particular estimation. The dialect spoken in it is the standard of purity, insomuch that classical Italian is often termed the Tuscan language. Florence, its capital, was a turbulent republic at the time when it flourished most in manufactures and the arts. In the arts and in literature its citizens long took the lead of all Italy ; and Florence, for the beauty of its architecture, and its productions of genius in every department, as well as for its government, was regarded as a second Athens. In late times it has been rather the possessor than the creator of fine performances ; but it has not ceased to be one of the most interesting objects of curiosity to the visitors of Italy. One of the principal Italian sea-ports, Livorno, vulgarly called Leghorn, is situated on the coast of this country ; and is much fre-

quented by the English and other foreign nations. Its consequence rose upon the ruins of that of Pisa, once an independent republic and a considerable maritime power, and in later times a celebrated university.

**PAPAL TERRITORIES.** The central part of Italy, from sea to sea, is occupied by the temporal domain of the pope; and though its territory has been curtailed by the annexation of the districts of Ferrara and Bologna to the Cisalpine republic or kingdom, yet it is still a state of no inconsiderable extent and population. But the nature of the government, which is that of an absolute elective sovereign, generally aged, and occupied in enriching his own family during a short reign, is adverse to its prosperity. A large portion of the western side of the country is taken up by the Pomptine marshes, which, from the times of ancient Rome to the late popedom, have cost immense toil and expense in attempts to bring them to a state of cultivation, and remedy their insalubrity.

Rome, the capital of this country, and the seat of the papal see, has for two thousand years been one of the most famous cities in the world. Its rise, progress, and decline, and every circumstance of its topography and civil history, have employed the pens of numberless writers; and at this day it is a distinct profession to point out to strangers all its relics of ancient grandeur, and its treasures of modern art. In population and wealth it can now rank only among second-rate capitals; nor does it possess any sources of prosperity, except those arising from the now much diminished resort of devotees and persons who have affairs to transact with the papal court, and the conflux of artists and curious travellers. Though robbed of many of its portable treasures by the rapacity of French invaders, it still offers to the admirers of art and the votaries of learning objects which will not suffer it to be passed by in neglect. Its associations with so many great characters and remarkable events must ever prove deeply impressive on the sensible mind. "It was (says Gibbon) as I sat musing amidst the ruins of the capital, while the bare-footed friars were singing vespers in the temple of Jupiter, that the idea of writing

the decline and fall of this city first started into my mind." What, indeed, could be a more speaking lesson of change than such a contrast? Civita-vecchia upon the Mediterranean, and Ancona upon the Adriatic, are the sea-ports of this state. It is needless to add, that the territorial dominion of the pope subsists only by the sufferance of its neighbours.

**KINGDOM OF NAPLES.** All the southern part of Italy, with the island of Sicily, constitute the kingdom of Naples. This rich portion was anciently the seat of many flourishing towns and colonies, several of them of Grecian origin, whence it had the name of Great Greece. After numerous revolutions it was united into a kingdom, which has become hereditary in the Spanish line. It ranks among the secondary powers of Europe by its population, which is estimated at six millions; but can scarcely maintain that place under the weakness and misgovernment of its present sovereigns, and the degraded character of the people. The government is entirely despotic: and no catholic country is more overrun with ecclesiastics, or more sunk in ignorance and abject superstition.

The capital, Naples, is a very fine city, placed upon one of the most beautiful bays in the world, and enjoying a luxurious climate. In population it ranks the fourth among the European capitals, the number of its inhabitants being estimated at 380000. Of these, however, a large proportion is destitute of all regular employment or means of livelihood, and hence is ready for any mischief; nor are assassinations and other disorders more frequent in any large city. Naples has obtained less distinction in the arts and sciences than most of the Italian capitals; and it is frequented by strangers chiefly for the mildness of its winters, the beauties of its situation, and the luxuries which it affords to those who are able to purchase them.

In the vicinity of Naples is the famous volcanic mountain Vesuvius, which sometimes alarms the people by its earthquakes and eruptions. It has produced terrific effects at different periods, and has overwhelmed whole towns within the reach of its eruptions. The buried cities of Herculaneum and

Pompeii, in its neighbourhood, are the most interesting objects in Europe to the students of antiquity.

The principal commodities exported from the kingdom are oil, silk, and wool: the latter, the growth of Puglia, is of a very fine quality. It also produces wine, fruits, rice, flax, and manna. It has silk and woollen manufactures.

Of the small islands connected with Italy, none deserves notice except Elba, which lies off the coast of Tuscany. It is small and rocky, and remarkable for its mineral productions, particularly its curious and beautiful ores of iron, from which metal of the best quality can be extracted. The magnet is found in Elba in perfection, and also asbestos and amianthus. Its vineyards afford excellent wine.

## MEDITERRANEAN ISLANDS.

**SICILY.** The island of Sicily is separated from the southern point of Italy by a narrow strait, and is the most considerable, for wealth and population, of all the Mediterranean isles. It extends westerly from the Italian coast, being nearly of the shape of a triangle having two equal sides; the base or shortest side runs north and south, and the other two sides meet in the western point. It lies between the latitudes  $36^{\circ} 45'$  and  $38^{\circ} 20'$ . The length is about 170 miles, and the mean breadth 70. Its surface is diversified with mountains, which run in such directions as to have given rise to a topographical division of the island into three main valleys. Its grand feature is the famous volcanic mountain Etna, or Mongibello, situated near the middle of the eastern coast. From a base above a hundred miles in circuit it rises majestic to the height of 11000 feet above the sea. All the upper part is a region of perpetual snow and ice: a girdle of thick forests surrounds its middle; while the lower slope consists of cultivated fields and vineyards, enriched by the saline and carbonic qualities of the soil. The eruptions break out some way below the summit of the mountain, and have formed a crater, with a circumference varying from three to six miles, whence have flowed streams of liquid fire, called lava, reaching to the distance of thirty miles. From the earliest records Etna has been a burning mountain, and its principal eruptions have been marked in history at different periods, down to the present age. They have often been extremely destructive to the towns and villages on its sides, which nevertheless continue to find inhabitants, who are attracted by the fertility of the soil. Earthquakes, caused by the same intestine commotions that produce the eruptions, have frequently agitated the surrounding country; and by one of these the fine city of Catania was entirely destroyed.



Sicily is watered by numerous rivulets, too short and broken in their course to serve the purposes of navigation, but copiously irrigating the land. Its sea-coasts are indented with many bays and inlets forming harbours, and rocky promontories jutting out into the sea, especially at the three angles of the island.

The soft climate of Sicily rendered it in early times a favourite scene of rural life, and the flowers of Enna and the honey of Hybla are of proverbial celebrity. Its fertility in grain caused it to be fabulously represented as the cradle of the agricultural art. This fertility covered it with an immense population, and rendered it the seat of rich and potent states. Its republics of Syracuse and Agrigentum were distinguished for commerce, wealth, and the fine arts; and the whole island was overspread with sumptuous edifices, and all the concomitants of refined luxury. It was long the field of contest between the Romans and Carthaginians; and after it was finally reduced under the dominion of Rome; it continued to be one of its most valued possessions. In latter times it has undergone numerous changes, sometimes constituting a single and independent state, but oftener an appendage to some other. Now, annexed to the kingdom of Naples, and governed as a dependency of that crown, it has suffered under all the weakness of its principal, with the additional evils and oppressions of a subordinate territory. Its population has declined; its agriculture languishes; and though its rich products show that its ancient fertility is unimpaired, yet it is become of small comparative account in the commercial world. The principal articles of export from Sicily are corn, wine (some of which is in high esteem) fruits, sulphur, amber, coral, barilla, soap, and skins.

Palermo, the capital of the island, is a regularly planned and well-built city, the residence of many nobility, and containing a population of 130000 inhabitants. Messina, opposite to the nearest Italian coast, has a fine port, and carried on a considerable trade at the time of its late desolation by a tremendous earthquake. Its trade has since revived, but its finest buildings still lie in ruins.

The LIPARI ISLES, a group at a small distance from the northern coast of Sicily, display many vestiges of the past effects of subterranean fires, and contain an existing volcano, that of Stromboli. Those that are cultivated are remarkable for their fine fruits, especially the grape which yields a rich and precious wine. They are annexed to the government of Sicily. Several other small islands belonging to Sicily are scattered in the sea near the coast.

**MALTA.** Between Sicily and the coast of Tunis in Africa, about 80 miles from the former, and 200 from the latter, lies the celebrated island of Malta, with its dependency, Gozo. These are little more than bare rocks, the former about 60 miles in circumference, the latter less than half that size; but the scanty soil, assiduously watered, is by the powerful influence of the sun rendered fertile in the vegetable products proper to the climate; in particular, it yields some of the finest oranges, in the world.

The fame of Malta dates from the 16th century, in which, on the capture of Rhodes by the Turks, it was presented to the military-monastic order of the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, since known by the title of knights of Malta. These were a band of adventurers of various nations, of noble birth, devoted to the defence of the christian religion against the mahometans, and on that account presented with estates or commanderies in most of the catholic countries. Having made the isle of Malta their chief residence, they fortified it in such a manner as to resist all the attempts of the Ottoman power to reduce it; and from its port armed vessels were continually issuing, which were the terror of the Barbary corsairs, and retaliated upon the mussulmans all the evils which they inflicted upon the christians. They rendered the capital, La Valetta, a large, beautiful, and splendid city, and filled the island with a numerous population, supported by the expenditure and charities of the knights. The Grand Master ranked with sovereign princes, and maintained a regal state. The spirit and utility of the order had been long declining, though the fortifications

of the island were preserved in all their strength, when, during the French revolutionary war, it was yielded up to the new republic without a contest. It was afterwards blockaded, and at length surrendered to the English, in whose possession it now is. The natural and artificial strength of the island, and the excellence of its harbour, must render it a post of great importance to a maritime nation. The common natives of Malta are in manners and appearance rather Moorish than European, and their language is a corrupt Arabic.

**SARDINIA.** If a line be drawn from Genoa directly south to the African coast, it will pass through two considerable islands, Sardinia and Corsica. The larger of these, Sardinia, which lies to the south, is situated between the latitudes  $38^{\circ} 40'$  and  $40^{\circ} 50'$ . It is of an oblong figure with irregular sides. Its length is about 140 miles, and breadth about 70 miles. It rises into hills toward the centre, whence rivulets spring, which water the lower lands, and render them very fertile. Sardinia formerly contributed to furnish ancient Rome with grain. It was always, however, reckoned an unhealthy country, and was thinly peopled. Its fertility still continues, and beside grain, of which, in good years, it exports a great quantity of an excellent quality, it produces grapes, olives, and other fruits, and feeds numerous herds and flocks. Its woods and uncultivated tracts abound in game. The circumfluent sea affords abundant fisheries, especially of the tunny, and the small fish called, from the island, sardines; and much coral is dragged up from its rocky shores. The mountains contain a variety of metals and minerals. Sardinia, in short, possesses within itself every thing to constitute a flourishing and wealthy country; but, though it is the largest possession of the king of Sardinia, who takes his title from it, yet it has been governed by the court of Turin as a subordinate member of that kingdom, and abandoned to neglect and abuse. The country people are a rude and ignorant race, in dress and manners resembling savages, who go perpetually armed even when cultivating the ground, and are ready to seize every occasion to rob and mur-

der. The chief town, Cagliari, is a well built and moderately populous city, possessing a good harbour. Its inhabitants are remarkably addicted to show and ceremony, and exhibit the greatest contrast to the natives of the interior, with whom they have scarcely any communication.

CORSICA, the ancient Cynus, lies directly north of Sardinia, and is separated from it by a narrow strait. It draws to a point at its northern and southern extremities, and its surface is much less than that of Sardinia. The face of the country is hilly and woody, the soil for the most part stony and steril, and the air insalubrious. Its products are similar to those of Sardinia. The inhabitants are industrious, rough, turbulent, and revengeful, but deserving of praise for the spirit with which they have contended for their liberty and independence. They are daring and martial, and, when formed by education, often display capacity and elevation of mind. Corsica was subjected by the Genoese; but the struggles of the natives for liberty were so fierce that the republic of Genoa, in its declining state, could not preserve its dominion, and resigned its assumed right to the French. The capital, Bastia, is a place of strength, and has a good harbour; and there are several very strong fortresses in the island\*.

\* The Spanish islands, Majorca, Minorca, and Ivica, have been mentioned in the account of Spain. Other European islands in the Mediterranean will be noticed in the description of Turkey, to which they lie contiguous.

## TURKEY IN EUROPE.

**THE** countries which we have hitherto surveyed, however different from one another, in certain respects, are all in some measure fraternized by the profession of the christian religion, and by a community of arts and studies, tending to a resemblance in manners and way of life. That portion of Europe which remains to be considered is possessed by a nation differing from the preceding in almost every circumstance that characterizes civilized man, and strongly marking their intrusion upon this quarter of the globe from that adjoining quarter whence they derive their origin.

Turkey in Europe is an extensive country, occupying the south-eastern part of the European continent. Its general boundaries are the territories of Russia and Austria to the north, the Adriatic and Mediterranean to the west, the latter sea to the south, and the Archipelago, the sea of Marmora, and the Black-sea to the east. It lies between the latitudes  $36^{\circ} 40'$  and  $48^{\circ} 20'$ ; it is only, however, by its north-eastern province of Moldavia that it extends beyond the 46th degree. For a few degrees south of that point it holds its full breadth, which afterwards suddenly contracts; and its southern part consists of a narrow projection, terminating in the peninsula of the Morea. For the most part Turkey lies within the same parallels as Italy and Spain.

The northern frontiers of this country, along the tract of the great river Save, Danube, Pruth, and Dniester, chiefly consist of extensive plains; although two mountainous ridges detached from the Carpathian chain form part of the boundary between Moldavia, Walachia, and the Austrian dominions. To the south of the Danube almost the whole of Turkey in Europe may be reckoned a mountainous country, being either crossed by long ridges in various directions, or thickly sprink-

led with scattered hills, which leave little space for level ground between them. The ridges begin on the eastern side in Bulgaria, where the lofty range of mountains celebrated by the ancients under the name of Hæmus, and now called Balken, forms the northern barrier of the ancient Thrace. To the south of this is Rhodope, making part of a chain, which may be traced quite across the broadest part of Turkey from south-east to north-west, till it joins in Croatia the Carniolan and Styrian mountains. Portions of this extensive chain are distinguished by the modern names of Glinbotin, Argentaro, and Despoto-Dag. Through that part of Rumelia which constituted the ancient Macedonia and Pæonia, ridges run chiefly north and south. Here were the famous classical names of Pindus, Olympus, Ossa, and Pelion. The insulated summit of mount Athos marks a promontory in the Archipelago. Below, the famous straits of Thermopylæ are formed by high hills pressing upon the sea-shore. Numberless summits in ancient Greece, north and south of the Poloponnesian isthmus, recall to those who can identify them amid modern barbarism, the scenes of great events or of splendid fictions.

Of the rivers of Turkey the greatest beyond comparison is the Danube, which, after dividing for some space the province of Servia from the Austrian Banmet, enters Walachia, and flows in a noble stream continually augmented by tributes on each bank, for the space of 400 miles, till it discharges its waters by several mouths into the Black-sea. The Sereth and the Pruth from Moldavia are the principal rivers which it receives in its Turkish course.

No considerable stream enters the Black-sea to the south of the Danube. The ancient Hebrus, now Maritz, issuing from the chain of the Hæmus, runs southerly to join the Archipelago not far from the straits of the Dardanelles. Into the same sea, in the gulf of Salonica, flows the Vardari, anciently Axios, which arises from the ridge of Argentaro. On the other side of the same chain, two considerable streams run northwards; the Morava into the Danube, and the Drin into the Save. The rivers of Greece, celebrated as they are in the works of poets

and historians, are of little consequence in the natural geography of the country.

The climate of Turkey is such as might be expected from its southern latitude, combined with the elevation of its mountainous surface ; subject in many parts to considerable winter-cold, but, upon the whole, soft and warm, pure and salubrious. No region is more favourable to human life, or (if we may judge from former examples) more happily tempered to the perfection of the mental and bodily constitution of man. Its natural and cultivated products are those of the southern part of the temperate zone. Of the farinaceous grains its different soils yield in abundance the wheat and barley of the northern, and the maize and rice of the southern countries. Vines, olives, fruits, and all garden vegetables are excellent in their kinds ; and though the soil is frequently light and scanty, there is no want of fertility, where industry does its part. Among domestic animals the Turkish horses support the reputation of those of Greece and Thrace in ancient times. The sheep of Walachia are remarkable for their spiral horns. The extensive plains on the Danube and other rivers rear numbers of fine cattle.

The quantity of the precious metals anciently extracted from the mines of Macedonia, Thrace, and Attica, is represented as rivalling that of the most celebrated mineral tracts ; but this source of opulence seems lost to the present possessors, probably more through the deficiency of skill and industry than exhaustion of the riches of nature.

No part of the globe affords so melancholy a comparison between its ancient and modern state as that which constitutes the Turkish dominion, especially the European portion of it. The fame of ancient Greece is the most splendid chapter in history ; and its proficiency in every pursuit that dignifies the human faculties has excited the wonder and admiration of every succeeding age and country capable of estimating it. Greece yielded to the Roman arms, but still retained a strong tincture of its genius and mental cultivation ; and the establishment of an eastern Roman empire at Constantinople shed a lustre on its declining days. At length barbarians from different quarters broke in, and wrested province after province from their

degenerate masters. The country about the Danube, which, under the names of Dacia, Pannonia, and Mæsia, had acquired population and wealth as Roman provinces, was laid waste and reduced to barbarism; and in fine, the Turks, a fierce uncivilized tribe from the eastern side of the Caspian sea, after many conquests in Asia, and their conversion to the mahometan religion, turned their arms against the European part of the oriental empire, and overwhelmed Greece and all its glories. By the reduction of the capital in 1453, the crescent was planted on the towers of Constantinople, and christianity saw its most inveterate foe strongly seated on the same continent. Successive wars have made inroads upon the northern part of the Turkish dominion; but, excepting the slip of land on the western coast named Dalmatia, possessed by the Austrian emperor, it has continued to hold all the country to the south of the Save and of the Danube after its junction with that river, together with the trans-danubian provinces of Moldavia, Walachia, and Bessarabia. Under the names of Rumelia and Albania are comprehended the ancient potent kingdom of Macedon, with all the famous Greek states north of the Corinthian isthmus; while the Peloponnesian peninsula, of which every petty district was once a celebrated state, is sunk in the modern Morea.

The population of these countries is derived from many different races. The northern provinces have a large infusion of Sarmatian or Sclavonian blood, together with the original Scythian or Thracian stock: among these, considerable remains of the Roman settlers of Dacia are discoverable in Walachia by their language and manners. The descendants of the Greeks are the chief inhabitants of the southern parts; where they preserve a dialect of their ancient noble language, not more corrupted than the Latin is in the Italian. They also retain the levity and sprightliness of their ancestors, but debased by the servility and dissimulation which have been produced by their abject and oppressed condition. The Turks themselves, the lords of the rest, are a mixed race, whose Tatarian origin has been gradually diluted by intermarriages with the fine women of Georgia and Circassia, and the multitude of fe-



male captives and slaves of the surrounding countries who have fallen into their hands. They are now, for the most part, a handsome and stately race of men, grave, sedate, and solemn, rendered haughty by ignorance, and indolent by want of employment. Their language is a harsh mixture of different Asiatic dialects, and may be reckoned barbarous in comparison with the Persian and Arabic.

The prevalent religion of Turkey is the mahometan, of the particular character of which it will be more proper to treat under the head of the country whence it sprung. Originally propagated by the sword, and inspiring the fiercest fanaticism, it still regards every other faith with contempt or abhorrence, and demands the most implicit belief in its followers. Hence it is utterly adverse to learning and philosophy, and devotes to ignorance and bigotry every nation professing it. Less intolerant, however, than the Roman catholic religion, it permits persons of different faith to live unmolested under its dominion, and exercise their worship, but as tributaries, and in a degraded and despised condition. The Koran is not only the religious but the civil code of the mahometans; a circumstance which for ever precludes their improvement in the science of legislation. It, however, proves a salutary restraint upon the despotism of the sovereign, who cannot violate the laws without incurring the guilt of impiety; and it has not unfrequently been seen, that the mufti, or head of the law, has had influence enough to procure the deposition of a tyrannical prince.

The emperor of Turkey, styled the Sultan, or Grand Signior, is always one of the Ottoman or Othman family, but not in any determinate hereditary order. He is despotic master of the lives and fortunes of his subjects, except so far as limited by the laws of the Koran. Educated in the recesses of the seraglio, and early habituated to gross sensuality, it is very rarely that the Ottoman emperors display vigour or talents for government. The despotic system extends to every branch of subaltern authority; and the people in the provinces are crushed by the oppression of inferior tyrants, from whom there is no appeal except to those who have sold them their appointments, and participate in their unjust gains. The want of security

damps every exertion of genius or industry. Content to exist, no one thinks of improvement of any kind. Public and private establishments decay, and have no successors ; and ruin and desolation mark the spirit of the Turkish government.

The pleasures of the Turks are almost all of the indolent and sedentary kind. Void of science, art, or liberal curiosity, they pass their time in trifling amusements or sensual indulgences, shut up with their women, of whom their religion allows them a plurality, or smoking and drinking coffee and sherbet in groups beneath the shade. Sobriety with respect to liquor is secured by the religious prohibition of wine, but the stupefying exhilaration of opium in some measure supplies its place. They are naturally brave, and, when duly stimulated, are capable of desperate efforts of valour ; but their impatience of discipline, and rejection of European tactics and military science, have rendered them in modern times constantly inferior in the course of a war to their christian antagonists. The political situation of the Turkish empire cannot, however, be fully considered till the Asiatic part of it has come under review.

It is supposed that at least half of the inhabitants of Turkey in Europe are christians. These are chiefly of the Greek church, which is the sect most prevalent throughout the east. They have their patriarch, and all the other dignities appertaining to an episcopal hierarchy ; but these posts are set to sale by the Turkish ministry, and nothing can be more contemptuous than the treatment which their occupiers experience. The Greek church vies with, or even surpasses, the Roman in superstition and ceremonial observances, but falls far short of it in learning and decorum. Like every oppressed and degraded party in a state, the Greeks are disaffected to the government under which they live, and are always ready, with a little encouragement, to break out in revolt.

The commerce of Turkey in Europe is much less considerable than it might be rendered by a more enterprising and industrious people. Of manufactures, those of carpets and dressed leather are almost alone objects of exportation. The native products of raw silk, cotton, currants, figs, dying drugs, and a few others, are exported by the strangers who frequent

their harbours ; the Turks themselves having in general an aversion to the sea.

The metropolis of this empire, Constantinople, anciently Byzantium, ranks the third of the European capitals in point of population, but surpasses them all in the beauty and advantages of its situation. Placed at the point where the Bosphorus, a narrow outlet from the Black-sea, issues in the Propontis, or sea of Marmora, it leans with the broadest of its three sides on the shore of the latter sea, whilst an arm running up from the Bosphorus affords it a deep, secure, and capacious harbour on another side : the third joins to the extremity of the European continent. As another narrow channel, the Hellespont, leads from the sea of Marmora to the Mediterranean, the city enjoys an equal communication with it and the Black-sea, and holds the keys of entrance on each hand. Thus it has every commercial advantage of a sea-port, united with security from foreign attack, and from the rage of the destructive element ; for the sea of Marmora, fed at each end by a river-like channel, resembles an inland lake, and serves as a great fishing-pool to the metropolis and other towns on its banks. Nothing can exceed the beauty of the winding shores of the Bosphorus, decorated with woods and gardens to the water's edge, and studded with villages and houses of pleasure. Constantinople presents from the water a singularly noble prospect, as it shows its different eminences crowned with domes and towers rising out of a sea of building. Its grandeur, however, is chiefly external ; for, within, it is laid out in narrow crooked streets fronted with mean and gloomy houses, all the elegance of which is concealed in enclosed courts. It possesses some remains of the splendour of its better days, as well as some stately edifices of modern construction ; but upon the whole it can bear no comparison with the cities of christian Europe. It is blest with a pure air and abundance of the necessaries of life ; but is subject to the frequent devastations of fire and pestilence, both proceeding from the negligence of the police. Its population, including the suburbs, is estimated at 400000.\*

\* Mr. Eton, in his Survey of the Turkish Empire, makes the population much less.

It has little commerce except that produced by the supply of its own wants.

The next Turkish city in Europe with respect to size and consequence is Adrianople, situated inland to the north-west of the metropolis. It commands a fertile district, and carries on a considerable traffic. Its mosques scarcely yield in magnificence to those of Constantinople. Saloniki, the ancient Thessalonica, built on a gulf of the Archipelago, is the principal mart for foreign commerce. There are other populous towns in different parts of European Turkey, but none that claim particular notice. The once flourishing cities of ancient Greece lie in ruin and oblivion. The name of Athens is preserved in the modern Atini ; but no stranger could recognise in it the seat of former renown.

On surveying the sea shores of Turkey in Europe, and those of the opposite Lesser Asia, they appear broken into a great number of points and promontories, some of them nearly insulated, seeming to exhibit the action of a raging sea upon the land, or the reflux of a body of water which had covered all but the most elevated spots. These ideas are enforced by the numerous islands which surround these shores, and sprinkle the surface of that sea, called the Archipelago, formerly the *Ægean*, which flows between Europe and Asia. Some of these islands are almost contiguous to the neighbouring continent ; the rest form so many stepping-stones, as it were, from coast to coast, rising with rocky heads from the waves, like the summits of submarine mountains. Of these islands a few which are reckoned to belong to Europe will be here mentioned.

On the west, off the Dalmatian coast, lies a group of long parallel islands, with narrow channels between them, apparently the wrecks of the adjacent continent. They are the resort of fishers and sea-faring men ; and, with the rest of the Venetian dominions to which they appertained, have fallen into the possession of Austria.

Southwards, on the same side, are situated, at different distances, the isles of Corfu, Cephalonia, Ithaca, Zante, and a few others, which also formed part of the Venetian dominion,

but in the revolutionary changes have been formed into the Republic of the Seven islands, under the protection of Russia. Some of these are fertile in the products of their climate, and carry on a considerable commerce. Zante is particularly known for its trade in the small dried grapes which we call currants.

To the south of the Morea, fronting the entrance of the Archipelago, is placed the fine island of Candia, so renowned in antiquity under the name of Crete. Its snowy ridge of mount Ida accompanies the greater part of its length. Candia extends about 180 miles from east to west, by a breadth of 40. It abounds in cattle and all the necessities of life, and produces a rich and balmy wine.

Northwards many scattered isles, formerly called the Cyclades, spot the surface of the Archipelago. Though small, many of these were anciently of great fame. Here are DELOS, NAXOS, PAROS, and ANTIPAROS, islands celebrated in the fabulous history of the ancients.

Along the eastern shore of Greece extends the island NEGROPONT, anciently Eubœa, once connected with the continent, from which it is separated only by a very narrow channel. It is 100 miles long and 20 broad, and has always been famed for its fertility.

These islands in general are inhabited by Greeks, who follow their own customs, and have the free exercise of their religion. A few Turks reside among them to decide their differences and collect the tribute. Piratical vessels frequently lurk among the rocky bays and unfrequented shores, and by their depredations render those abodes insecure, which would otherwise be delightful.

## ASIA.

The second of the quarters of the globe in extent, but the first in wealth and population, is ASIA, supposed to have been the primitive seat of the human race, and the centre of the earliest civilization. It forms one continent with Europe, from which it is separated to the west by the boundary of European Russia, already described, and by the Black sea, the sea of Marmora with its straits, the Archipelago and Mediterranean: the isthmus of Suez and the Red sea are its limits on the side of Africa. To the south it has the Indian ocean, interspersed with large and numerous islands, which are reckoned to belong to it. Its eastern side is washed by the vast Pacific ocean, which flows between it and America, and which at length is contracted to a narrow strait, leading to the Arctic or Frozen ocean, by which Asia is bounded on the north. The furthest southern point of the Asiatic continent reaches to within a degree of the Equator, whilst its northern shore lies within the arctic circle; thus it spreads through the torrid, the temperate, and the frigid zones. It is, however, within the limits of the torrid and the southern part of the temperate zones that all the rich and well-inhabited parts of Asia are situated; for the middle belt of this continent, which runs parallel to the most desirable countries of Europe, is mostly an immense desert; and all that lies to the north of it is a region of intense cold during a great part of the year.

Asia, therefore, has always been considered as a soft and luxurious climate, impressing its character on the nations inhabiting it; and though, from the exuberance of its population, it has at different periods poured forth armed deluges which have struck terror into the adjacent countries of Europe, and made temporary conquests, yet the genius of the latter has finally triumphed. War has rarely been waged between Euro-

peans and Asiatics without displaying a manifest superiority of valour and energy in the former ; and Asia, by the Greeks and Romans, and by the modern nations of Europe, has been regarded rather as a tempting field for pillage, than as the theatre of stubborn and equal contest. Its arts and sciences have borne the same stamp of inferiority ; and for a long course of centuries the human mind seems to have made no advance in any of the extensive territories in this quarter of the globe. It is still, however, a very interesting country, filled with the relics of former grandeur and the works of existing magnificence, swarming with people in some parts, and presenting infinite matter of curious inquiry in its various races of men, its soil and climate, and its products in all the kingdoms of nature.

We shall begin our survey with a part which forms a political continuation of the preceding article.

## TURKEY IN ASIA.

THOUGH the seat of the Ottoman government is in Europe, yet the largest and most valuable possessions of the empire are situated in the opposite continent. These territories consist of the peninsula of Lesser Asia, of the ancient Syria and Mesopotamia, of Armenia, Imeritia, and Mingrelia; countries once the seats of many rich and potent states, famous through long periods of history. Its boundaries are, to the north, the sea of Marmora with its channels, and the Black sea, with the Kuban river and the Caucasian chain of mountains separating it from the Russian territory; to the east, Georgia and Persia; to the south, Arabia; to the west, the Mediterranean sea. Its form is very irregular, its great middle bulk curving round to a sort of neck as it follows the shore of the Black sea northwards, and being extended into two limbs or legs southwards. Its northern and southern extremities respectively reach nearly the 45th and 30th degrees of N. latitude: from east to west it extends about 1000 miles.

Though the Ottoman porte has claims of superiority over Egypt and the Barbary states, and receives occasional tribute from them, yet they can scarcely be reckoned as part of its dominions.

The climate of the greater part of this country has always been accounted one of the most delicious on the globe: even the inhabitants of Greece and Italy looked upon Lesser Asia and Syria as regions in which the human body became enervated through excess of pleasurable sensations; and the music, the poetry, the oratory, and arts of Asia were supposed to have acquired a dangerous taint of effeminacy, from the softness of the atmosphere. This character, however, is chiefly applicable to its sea-coast and inland plains and valleys; for the general face of the country is remarkably roughened by moun-



tains, which are frequently of such a height as to produce rigorous cold. These mountains, however, temper the heat of the southern latitudes, and offer an agreeable choice of climate according to the local elevation.

To pursue minutely the several ridges which overspread Asiatic Turkey would only confuse the reader: it will suffice to mention some of the most celebrated in history and geography. The famous mount Taurus of antiquity is recognised in a long chain stretching in a sinuous course from the shores of the Archipelago to the banks of the Euphrates, a length of about 600 miles. From this a branch extends north-easterly through Armenia, which seems to unite with the Caucasian chain. The latter, the Caucasus of ancient fable and history, only skirts the northern border of the Turkish dominions, and then passes through Georgia to the shore of the Caspian sea. Many shorter ridges run from the shores of the Black sea and the Archipelago towards the inland country. Of these, near the straits that separate Asia from Europe, are the Asiatic Olympus, whose summits, clad in perpetual snow, are visible from Constantinople, and the Ida, deriving fame from its connexion with the scenery of ancient Troy. Several ridges may be traced branching from Taurus southwards to the Mediterranean. One of these, running parallel to the Syrian coast, and not far distant from it, forms Libanus or Lebanon, and shoots its spurs into Palestine.

Many rivers wind between these mountainous ranges; but those of Lesser Asia are not remarkable for length of course. The largest is the Kizil Irmak, the Halys of antiquity, which, rising in Taurus, near the town of Erekli, flows northwards across the greatest part of the peninsula, and enters the Black sea to the west of the gulf of Sansoun. The Sacaria, anciently Sagaris, springing from a lake near the centre of Lesser Asia, joins the Black sea at no great distance from the Bosphorus. On the western side, the Sarabat, renowned under the name of Hermus for its golden sands, flows into the Archipelago to the north of Smyrna. To the south of it the proverbially winding Meander, now Minder, holds a parallel course through spacious plains to the sea opposite the isle of Samos.

All these streams are much inferior to the Euphrates, one of the most celebrated of Asiatic rivers. Its source is in the mountains of Armenia near Erzerum, whence it first flows south-westerly; but being interrupted in its course by a range of mountains, it turns first to the south, and then to the south-east, till it finds an exit in the Persian gulf soon after receiving the Tigris. Its entire course is estimated at about 1400 miles. The Tigris, its rival or ally, rises in the same tract of country with the Euphrates, but more to the east. It holds a direct south-eastern course by Mosul and Bagdad, where it very nearly approaches the Euphrates, and forms its junction with that river about 60 miles above Bassora. Both these fine rivers are navigable far up the country. They form such distinguished features of the tract through which they pass, that the intervening district acquired the name of Mesopotamia—between the rivers.

There are many lakes in Asiatic Turkey, both fresh and saline. The largest is that of Van in Kurdistan; but the most famous is the Dead sea at the southern extremity of Syria, in the ancient Palestine.

Countries situated in the warmer part of the temperate zone, and possessing every variety of soil and situation, cannot fail of being furnished abundantly with the natural and cultivated products of the vegetable kingdom.

Lesser Asia was the parent country of several of the most esteemed fruits which were brought into Europe by the Roman conquerors. The tracts bordering upon Arabia produce the date-palm, and are the most northerly latitude in which it ripens its fruit. The vine, the olive, and the fig arrive at great perfection in almost every province. The farinaceous grains and legumes yield abundantly in their proper soils, wherever nature is tolerably seconded by the industry of the husbandman.

Of domestic quadrupeds, those principally employed for carriage are the ass, the mule, and the camel. The finest horses are of Arabian blood, and are reserved for persons of rank. The plains of Mesopotamia were of old renowned for the flocks and herds to which they gave pasture; and to this

day there are several wandering tribes, as the Turcomans and Kurds, who lead a pastoral life on the spacious plains of the districts which they occupy. The sheep of Lesser Asia are in more estimation than the horned cattle. Syria possesses some of the broad-tailed kind, in which the tail is chiefly a lump of fat. The same country has a breed of goats distinguished by their long pendulous ears. The district of Angora, in the centre of Lesser Asia, is remarkable for a beautiful race of goats, of a milk-white colour, with fine hair all over the body disposed in long spiral ringlets: this is the material of which the finest camlets are made. There appears to be a singular property in the soil or air of this district, since the hair of its sheep, cats, and rabbits is uncommonly long and fine.

Of wild quadrupeds, the ibex haunts the summits of Caucasus and of other high mountains. The common antelope or gazel runs in herds in the deserts of the south, and the wild boar and various kinds of deer inhabit the forests. The lion now no longer met with in Europe, is first seen in Asia on the banks of the Euphrates, and seldom comes further westward. The hyena is frequent towards the south, and troops of jackals haunt the neighbourhood of towns, which they disturb by their nightly howlings.

There is little doubt that many of the mountainous tracts of Turkey are metalliferous; and it is known that Lydia was anciently famed for its gold mines. At present, such is the inertness of the Turkish government, that scarcely any mines are heard of in these countries, except some of copper near Tokat. Hot mineral springs occur in various parts: the most famous of these supply some fine baths at Prusa, beneath mount Olympus.

In the eleventh century the Turks, descending from their original settlements about the Caspian sea, made themselves masters of Georgia and Armenia, and soon after of the whole of Lesser Asia. Syria, Diarbekir or Mesopotamia, and some provinces on the Persian border, were annexed by conquest in the 16th century, since which period little change has taken place in this part of the Turkish dominions.

The people are of various origin, and differ in language, religion, and manners. The Turks, as the rulers, possess the principal power and property, and are the chief inhabitants of cities: their language and religion are the predominant ones: their manners are marked with the same gravity, haughtiness, and indolence, that distinguish their brethren in Europe. Of the christians the majority are of the Greek church, and use the modern Greek language. The Armenians have a language of their own, and constitute a peculiar sect of christians, characterized by rigorous fasts and abundance of ritual observances. They are much addicted to commerce, which they pursue through almost all the countries of the east, every where forming a distinct people, and strictly adhering to their manners and religion. They are frugal, polite, and wary, and understand all the mysteries of traffic.

The Syrian christians are chiefly Maronites, a sect which acknowledges the superiority of the see of Rome, but has some peculiarities of worship. The Druses, a people in the mountains of Syria, who live nearly independent, with the profession of mahometanism, are said to be very lax in religious faith. Among these southern tribes the Syriac, Arabic, Persian, and other dialects are in use. The wandering tribes of Turcomans seem to be what the Turks were in their original state. The Kurds are a peculiar tribe, who live in tents, and roam with their flocks and herds from Mesopotamia to the sources of the Euphrates.

Though many ancient seats of population and splendour in this part of Asia are now heaps of ruins or obscure villages, yet some flourishing cities still display the natural opulence and advantages of the country. In general, they are superior to the towns of European Turkey in commerce and civilization. The first place among these is due to Aleppo or Haleb, the capital of Syria. It is well built, in the Asiatic style, and with its mosques and other public edifices makes a very striking appearance. Its population is reckoned at 250000. It possesses thriving manufactures of silk and cotton; and by means of the caravans from Bagdad and Bassora is rendered a mart for the commodities of Persia and India. Several of the trading coun-

tries of Europe have factories in it. Damascus in Syria, further to the south, is estimated to contain 180000 people. Its former celebrity for works in steel, particularly sword-blades, is lost; but it flourishes by its manufactures of mixed silk and cotton, called damasks, and of excellent soap, and other articles: it is also frequented by the caravans from Bagdad. Smyrna, a populous city and sea-port on the Archipelago, is the centre of the European Levant trade, and the residence of the principal factors of the mercantile states of Europe. It exports a great quantity of the products of Lesser Asia, consisting of cotton, silk, oil, leather, dying drugs, and manufactured goods.\*

All the Turkish cities in Asia are subject to frequent and destructive visitations of the plague, and are in a state of depopulation and decay. Another great evil is the frequency of revolt among the bashaws or military commanders in the parts of this despotic empire which are remote from the seat of government, which introduces a temporary anarchy, exposing foreign merchants, especially christians, to pillage and massacre.

The most important mart in the interior country is Konieh, the ancient Iconium. It is well built, and provided with numerous and commodious khans for the convenience of merchants, by many of whom, of various countries and religions, it is frequented. Konieh is the principal seat of that extraordinary order of enthusiasts, the dervises or mahometan monks called Mewlewahs, whose devotion chiefly consists in a kind of whirling dance, continued till they fall down exhausted.

Prusa, the ancient Bursa, is one of the most agreeable and well-built cities of Lesser Asia, and was formerly a favourite residence of the sultans: it is romantically situated at the foot of mount Olympus. Angora, already mentioned for its breed of goats, is rendered populous by its manufacture of stuffs. Tokat, in a rugged rocky situation, flourishes by its silk and leather manufactures, and its trade in copper utensils, made of

\* The population of the Turkish cities seems to be overrated. See Eton's Survey of the Turkish Empire.

the metal extracted from the mines in the neighbouring mountains. Some of the ports on the Black sea possess a share of commerce, but of no great extent : the total want of science in navigation among the Turkish mariners subjects them to perpetual losses and delays ; and the Russian ports on the opposite side will certainly command the chief traffic on this sea. Trebisonde, one of these ports, is of great fame in the history of the middle ages. At the opposite extremity of Asiatic Turkey Basra, or Bassora, is rendered opulent and populous by the trade on the Persian gulf, which conveys to it the commodities of India and Persia. This city, however, belongs rather to an independent Arabian prince than to the grand seignior, who receives from it only a dubious homage.

Bagdad, once so celebrated as the splendid seat of the Saracen caliphs, is now reduced to a town of 20000 inhabitants. Near it are the obscure relics of a much greater city, the ancient Babylon. Jerusalem, the famed capital of the Jewish nation, and so long the object of contention between the christian and mahometan powers, is now a mean town in a steril district, subsisting only by that veneration in which it is held by Jews, Christians, and Musselmans, and which still procures it the visits of many pious pilgrims.

Travellers of a different class from those last mentioned have visited all the parts of this country to which a safe access is permitted, in search of those remains of classical antiquity with which they abound. At every memorable spot occur the vestiges of famous cities, now barely to be traced by the ruins of their demolished walls, and the broken columns of their temples, buried in the rank herbage, and the haunt of snakes and jackals. Not only the slow corrosion of time, and the violence of fanatic barbarians, have operated in this destruction, but the frequent earthquakes to which Lesser Asia is liable have powerfully aided in the work of demolition. In several spots relics of human art still survive in a state to attract admiration. The most striking assemblage of ruins probably in the world is presented by the ancient Palmyra, or Tadmor, singularly placed in a sandy desert on the borders of Arabia, far to the south-east of Aleppo. These are described as suddenly

bursting upon the traveller's eye as he comes round an eminence in the wilderness, and disclosing long rows of columns decorated with architectural ornaments, gigantic portals, and roofless temples. Balbec, the ancient Heliopolis, on the coast of Syria, is famed for a single magnificent ruin, that of the temple of the Sun, equally conspicuous for the vastness of its dimensions, and the noble style of its architecture.

To this division of the Turkish dominions belong several fine islands. Of those in the Archipelago the most northerly and the largest is MYTILENE, the ancient LESBOS, once famed for beauty, poetry, music, and all that could minister to refined voluptuousness. It is mountainous, and intersected with bays and arms of the sea, which present many fine situations, decorated with plantations of olives and vines, and naturally clothed with myrtle and odoriferous shrubs. The climate is delicious, and the products exquisite in their kinds. Its natural hot baths are celebrated.

SCIO, the ancient CHIOS, succeeds. It is also a mountainous, but beautiful isle, well cultivated by its Greek inhabitants, who enjoy more freedom here than elsewhere. Its wines retain their former reputation; and its groves of lemon and orange trees and other fine fruits equally gratify the different senses. Scio is famous for its product of mastich, a fragrant resin collected from a shrub of the genus pistachia, and chiefly reserved for the use of the Grand Seignior's haram, as a masticatory. The Chio turpentine, produced by a tree of the same genus, is also much valued. The women are beauties of the Grecian mould of feature, but disfigured by a preposterous mode of dress.

SAMOS and Cos are valuable isles of ancient fame. The soil of Rhodes is sandy, but fertile in wheat.

Near that extremity of the Mediterranean which washes the Syrian coast lies the island of CYPRUS, much superior in extent to any of those above enumerated. It is 160 miles long and 70 broad in its widest part. The soft climate and fruitful soil of this island caused it to be anciently accounted the peculiar residence of Venus, and its manners corresponded with this appropriation. It flourished at different periods in popula-

tion and opulence, but has been in a declining state since it came under the dominion of the Turks in 1570. Its commodities are a peculiarly rich wine, silk, cotton, fruits, timber, and turpentine. It has also many mineral treasures though now neglected. Cyprus labours under a deficiency of running water during the summer heats; and its stagnant pools infect the atmosphere so as to render the low grounds very unhealthy.

The sum of population in European Turkey is estimated at eight millions; that of Asiatic Turkey at ten millions. These eighteen millions of subjects would compose a very powerful state, if they did not consist of a discordant assemblage of various people and religions, held together only by despotism, which loses its power in proportion to the distance from the centre of its action. In many districts a few Turks live as tyrants amidst a host of reluctant slaves, who would certainly join any invader likely to free them from the yoke. On this account it is found necessary to delegate almost unlimited power to the distant governors, who, if they lose their interest at court, are in perpetual danger of their lives, and frequently hold by force the office which they dare not resign. It is very seldom that some of the provinces are not in a state of open revolt. The system of government is so adverse to the prosperity and welfare of the governed, and is administered with so much ignorance and incapacity, that, whilst other nations are improving, Turkey is in a constant progress of deterioration. Its armies, formerly dreaded at least for their numbers, are inferior to those of some of the neighbouring powers; and its revenues, though considerable, are not adequate to any great exertions.



## ASIATIC RUSSIA.

HAVING closed our survey of one empire which extends from Europe to Asia, we shall not delay to complete the account of another, which agrees with it in this circumstance, and is its neighbour in both quarters of the world. We shall hereby be carried back somewhat abruptly to the regions of frost: but no geographical arrangement can give entirely regular and easy transitions.

The Russian empire, which we have seen occupying so large a portion of the European continent, extends much more widely in the Asiatic; for the whole northern part of Asia from east to west, and from the Arctic ocean to the borders of Tatory, is included under this designation. Of this vast tract the northern, eastern, and western boundaries are distinctly marked, being those of Asia itself: the southern line, as passing along the verge of wild and uninhabited deserts, must be accounted in great part indeterminate and ideal. It may, however, be reckoned to pass from the west along the river Kuban and the chain of Caucasus to the northern part of the Caspian sea; thence to ascend through the steppe of Issim to the river Ob, proceeding on its bank to the point whence it issues from the Altaian mountains; then, following that chain to the head of the Onon in Daouria, and along the course of the Argoun to the Yablonoï mountains, a branch of which it follows to its termination in a promontory on the coast north of the river Amur. The extent of Asiatic Russia is estimated at 5300 English miles from east to west, by a breadth of nearly 2000 from north to south.

The face of the country, for the most part, like that of European Russia, tends to a level. The borders of the northern ocean consist mostly of marshy plains, buried in almost per-

petual snow. The land rises in the interior, and acquires considerable elevation toward the Tatarian border, where it forms several wide sandy deserts called steppes. Mountainous ridges, however, are to be traced in various parts of the country, especially near its boundaries.

The Uralian mountains, which have been mentioned as forming part of the boundary between Europe and Asia, finally enter the latter quarter, and send off branches westerly uniting with the chain of Caucasus, and easterly meeting the Altaian chain. The latter is a most extensive mountainous ridge, which, running along the southern limit of this empire, passes, under the name of the Sayansk mountains, to the south of lake Baikal; whence, bending northerly under the denominations of the Gablonoi, Daourian, and Stanovoi mountains, it fringes, as it were, the whole eastern sea-coast of Asia, till it terminates at the north-eastern extremity of the continent. From different parts of this great chain lower hilly ridges run northwards, some of them reaching to the Arctic ocean. Near its termination at the head of the sea of Ochotsk, it sends a branch southwards, which divides the whole length of the peninsula of Kamtschatka. This branch abounds in volcanoes beyond almost any other known ridge of mountains.

Some of the largest rivers of the globe cross this vast continent in their way to the Arctic ocean. The chief of these is the Ob or Oby, which taking its rise in the foot of the Altaian mountains, and, joined by the Tom and other streams, flows to Samarov, where it receives the addition of a larger river than itself, the Irtish. This last, springing in the country of the Eluth Tatars, crosses the lake Saisan, and after issuing from it penetrates the Altaian chain, and passes the towns of Omsk and Tara to Tobolsk; there, augmented by the Tobol, it seeks the Ob at Samarov, and loses its name. The united river now flows due north, till, beyond the 66th degree of latitude, it disembogues into a wide and deep estuary named the Sea of Oby, which communicates with the Arctic ocean. The course of the Ob, including its estuary, is computed at 1900 miles.

The next of these great rivers is the Yenisei, which is supposed to take its rise in some mountains to the south of lake

**Baikal.** It does not, however, acquire its name till after the junction of several streams, when it takes a direct northern course. About the 58th degree of latitude it is joined by the Tunguska, a great river flowing out of the Baikal, and first called Angara. Another Tunguska (unless the names are confounded) falls in at lat. 6°, and the united stream then proceeds to the ocean at an estuary not far eastward of that of the Oby.

Several other considerable streams enter the Arctic ocean to the west of the Lena, which is the third of the mighty rivers that traverse the whole breadth of Asiatic Russia. This rises on the western side of the Baikal, and flows in a north-easterly direction, joined by some large streams from the Yablonoi mountains, till it reaches Yakutsk: it then turns almost due north, having a broad channel full of islands, and enters the ocean by several mouths. Further to the east are the Indigirka, Covima, and Anadir, which water extensive tracts, but in regions of desolation, where man has scarcely planted his foot.

Of the southern rivers one of the principal is the Yaik, now called Ural, which, rising in the Uralian mountains, passes Orenburg, and afterwards takes a direct southerly course to the Caspian sea. The Volga, which discharges itself into the same sea, is Asiatic in the latter part of its course. The Selinga, a large river from Tatary, enters the Russian territory to the south of the Baikal, into which lake it empties itself opposite to the exit of the Angara: it is therefore by some geographers accounted the parent of that river and of the Yenisei. Further to the east, the Onon and the Argoun join to form the great river Amur, which has its course through the territory of the Chinese empire.

The lakes of Asiatic Russia are not numerous. By much the most extensive is the Baikal, which is considered by the people on its shores as meriting the title of a sea. It is situated far to the east, between the 51st and 55th degrees of latitude, and extends 350 miles in length, by a breadth not exceeding 35. Its waters are fresh, and commonly frozen in winter. Its sudden storms render it formidable to mariners, who regard it

with a kind of reverential awe. Several islands diversify its surface. The principal feeder of this lake is the river Selenga, and its outlet is the Angara. A lake of considerable dimensions lies between the Ob and the Irtysh, divided by an island into two portions bearing the names of Tchany and Soumi. Several saltlakes occur to the west of the Volga, and in the desert tracts about the Yaik.

All the parts of Asiatic Russia, of which the soil and climate admit the growth of trees, abound in extensive forests. These, on the borders of the Caspian sea, and on the Turkish and Persian frontiers, consist of natives of the warm or temperate latitudes, and are accompanied by the wild fruits and elegant flowering shrubs that belong to the same climates. As soon, however, as the country begins to slope to the north, constituting the vast region known by the general name of Siberia, it feels the influence of the cold which prevails over this tract to a degree beyond that of the same latitudes in any other part of the globe, and its vegetable products display the alteration. The oak, the beech, the hazle, and other natives of the European temperate climes disappear; and the forests are composed of birch, alder, Tatarian maple, black and white poplar, and especially of numerous species of the pine tribe. These border the banks of the great rivers, and by inundations are frequently swept into the Arctic ocean, where they become the source of that abundance of drift wood which is met with on the naked shores of Spitzbergen and other arctic lands, to the great comfort of the temporary resident. Nor is the surface of the earth destitute of numerous species of smaller plants, which, preserved beneath the snow during the winter, decorate the short summer with a variety of floral beauty. Many of these, transported into our gardens, form some of their fairest ornaments. The whole vegetable creation, however, gradually dwindles and disappears on proceeding towards the Frozen sea, the shores of which are naked marshy flats, scarcely keeping life in a very few species of stunted unsightly plants.

The Siberian wilds and forests are inhabited by a great variety of animals, which constitute a considerable share of their value to the few human possessors. The rein-deer wanders

over the whole northern waste, from west to east, and is generally domesticated for the purposes of draught and the use of its milk and flesh. A kind of wild sheep called the argali is an object of the chase in some districts. Large stags occur in the tracts about lake Baikal, mingled with the musk and others of the antelope tribe, and the wild boar. The mountains of Caucasus afford the urus or bison, and the ibex. Wild horses and asses roam in herds over the steppes adjacent to Tatar. The bear, the wolf, and foxes of various kinds are common in Siberia. The latter animal furnishes some of the most valued furs; but the bulk of this costly article of luxury is procured from animals of the weasel tribe. Of these the sable is the principal object of the hunters, who pay the tribute to the crown in its skins. Sables are met with from the Uralian chain through all the wooded part of Siberia, becoming more plentiful on proceeding eastward (probably from the diminishing population) and more valuable on proceeding northward: this, however, is only to the limit of the forests, which are their proper residence. The beaver is found on the banks of the Yenesei: hares, squirrels, and a variety of the murine tribe are common in all parts.

Nature has also bountifully supplied these regions with the finny race. The rivers afford not only the usual constant inhabitants of their waters, but are visited by prodigious annual migrations of the larger fishes from the neighbouring seas. From the Caspian, shoals of the sturgeon genus run up the Volga and Yaik, affording a rich harvest to the fishers, who find a profitable article of exportation in their salted roe, or caviar, the favourite delicacy of the northern countries. The great Siberian rivers are in like manner visited by fishes of this kind, and also by numerous species of the salmon genus, affording an excellent and plentiful food. The different kinds show a preference of some rivers above others. The Ob, which undergoes a kind of putrid fermentation soon after its first freezing, is for a period deserted by its fish, which rush into the mouths of the purer communicating rivers, presenting a ready capture at those places to the fishermen. The Lake Baikal contains a variety of fish, of which one species is peculiar to itself: this

is a kind of soft lump, consisting almost entirely of oil, never taken alive, but thrown on shore in great numbers after storms. No part of the empire more abounds in fish than the remote peninsula of Kamtschatka, the rivers of which swarm with the salmon tribe.

The principal wealth of Russia in mineral products is derived from her Asiatic territories. The Uralian mountains and their vicinity are the centre of the mining country. Gold, copper, and iron are the metals chiefly extracted there; and the founderies for the two latter are very numerous. The Siberian iron is a great object of commerce, and some of it vies in goodness with the Swedish. Gold is likewise found, along with silver, in the districts of Kolyvan and Nertshinsk, and copper and lead are met with in the Altaian chain. Rock-salt, alum, nitre, sulphur, vitriol, and natron are produced abundantly; but coal has yet been scarcely discovered in these parts. Siberia affords also a great variety of gems and beautiful stones, which, however, are little known, except in the cabinets of mineralogists. There appears still to be much room for investigation into its subterraneous treasures.

Many distinct races of men are scattered over this wide space, differing from each other in appearance, manners, religion, and language. To the south, Tatarian tribes prevail, many of whom are mahometans, while some of the more eastern follow the faith of the Delai Lama, or a kindred system termed Shamanism. The Tatars are in general the most civilized and industrious of the natives. Towards the north dwell the Samoieds, Ostiaks, Koriaks, and other similar tribes, who are sunk in gross superstition and idolatry, and are filthy and squalid in their habits of life. Some of these live chiefly on fish and seals: others are supported by their rein-deer and the product of the chase; some are fixed, others wandering; but all are averse to the exertions of steady industry. They are in general of small stature, and hard-featured; but there is a tribe at the north-eastern corner of the continent, called the Tschutki, distinguished by superiority of size and better features, and greater skill in the arts of life. The peninsula of Kamtschatka is inhabited by another race, but not less filthy and brutalized

than the Samoieds. The character of these northern tribes in general is harmless and phlegmatic ; yet the Tschutki and Koriaks appear to live in perpetual hostility.

The Mongul Tatars at an early period had established a principality in the heart of Western Siberia, the existence of which country was scarcely known to the Russians ; when, in the 16th century, one Yermak, a Cossac chief, expelled by the Russian arms from his settlement in the south, undertook an expedition against the khan of Siberia, and dethroned him. He was afterwards obliged to call in the aid of the Russians, who had before subdued the Tatar kingdoms of Cazan and Astrachan. Making their own advantage of this introduction into Siberia, they by degrees extended their dominion over the whole country as far as the river Amur. Kamtschatka was lastly discovered and conquered, not without repeated insurrections on the part of the natives, which were attended with much bloodshed. The sovereignty of Russia appears now to be recognized by all the tribes of northern Asia, although the remoteness and little value of several of the districts have caused the imperial court to acquiesce in a loose form of allegiance, consisting chiefly in the payment of tributary furs. The Tschutki lately refused even this acknowledgment ; but are said to have since renewed it.

The Russian and Chinese empires seem to have been surprised to find themselves neighbours in their respective Tatarian limits, and arms were called in to decide the claim of each to some part of the immense deserts possessed by both. As the Chinese capital lay much nearer to the frontier than the Russian, the latter power could not avail itself of its military superiority, and in the treaty which terminated the difference, the advantage remained to China. The subjects of the two empires carry on a mutual traffic at two border settlements ; and some of the rich commodities of Peking, exchanged for Siberian furs, find their way to Petersburg by an inland navigation and carriage of several thousand miles.

Asiatic Russia, as already observed, constitutes a small part of the power and population of that empire. Its people, reckoned only at three millions and a half, are many of them sa-

vage, and unfit either for arts or arms. The Arctic sea is so encumbered with perpetual ice, that it is entirely unfit for the purposes of navigation; and the Caspian gives access only to the disordered and generally hostile kingdom of Persia. From all the other parts of Asia it is nearly cut off by the impassable deserts of Tatory. Siberia is chiefly valuable to Russia for its mines and furs. It also serves as a place of banishment for state delinquents, who are thus removed from the theatre of political intrigue, while they may nourish the hope of return on a change of administration. Prisoners of war have also been sent thither, and have much contributed to civilize and improve the country.

Agriculture has made little progress in these parts, though, if they were sufficiently peopled, the soil and climate in many districts would afford adequate encouragement to the labours of husbandry. About Astrachan the vine is cultivated with success, but chiefly for the sake of the fruit in its natural state, which is sent at a vast expense to supply the luxury of Moscow and Petersburg. Excellent melons are raised about the Volga and Yaik, and the finest rhubarb is found native in the plains about the latter river, and in other parts. In southern Siberia the usual farinaceous grains prosper, and flax and hemp grow luxuriantly. Daouria and the province of Nershinsk possess a soil adapted to any kind of culture. Cattle are numerous near Tobolsk, where there is no deficiency of hay for winter fodder. The chief obstacles to agriculture in these countries are the excessive severity of the winter frosts, and the long droughts frequent in summer.

Of the towns the richest and most populous is Astrachan, situated not far from the discharge of the Volga into the Caspian sea. This position gives it many advantages for commercial communication, and it carries on a great traffic, especially in the several products of the fisheries on the Volga. Its leather manufactories and salt-works are considerable. Its population, which consists of a singular assemblage of different nations, is stated at 70000. Orenburg, on the Yaik or Ural, flourishes by means of the trade which it maintains with the tribes to the east of the Caspian.



The capital of Siberia Proper is Tobolsk, situated at the conflux of the Tobol and Irtysh. It is the seat of the civil and ecclesiastical government, and has several public edifices, which give it an air of grandeur. Though its climate is very severe, it enjoys an abundance of the necessaries of life ; and it is not without civilized society, for some of the best of which it is often indebted to exiles. Catherineburg and Kolyvan are towns of some importance, on account of the mines in their vicinity. Tomsk, on the Oby is moderately populous ; but is surpassed by Irkutsk, near the lake Baikal, which is the mart for the trade between Russia and China, and the seat of the supreme government over Eastern Siberia. Yakutsk, on the Lena, is the most northern of the Siberian towns. At this place mercury set in the open air on a winter's night has frozen solid. Ochotsk is the port whence the communication with Kamtschatka is carried on.

To Asiatic Russia belongs a number of islands, partly extending between Kamtschatka and the promontory of Alashka on the American coast, and partly between the southern point of that peninsula and the Japanese isles. These are inhabited by people resembling either the Kamtschadales or the natives of the neighbouring American continent. They have been visited by the Russians for the fish and furs with which they abound, especially for the valuable fur of the sea-otter, a commodity of great price in the markets of China. The Russians have abused the right of the strongest over the poor natives, so that they have been much diminished under their oppressions, and their cupidity has exhausted the furs in some of the islands. The chief employment of the inhabitants is the capture of fish and seals, from which they derive their sustenance.

Some islands at the mouth of the Covima carry on a trade in what are called mammoth's tusks, but which are probably those of the morse or narwhal, with which three or four vessels are annually laden.

## INDEPENDENT TATARY.

THE name of Tatory has been generally applied to that vast tract of country which constitutes the middle belt or zone of Asia from west to east, and which is inhabited by a great number of nations and tribes, some of kindred, others of totally different origin. The greatest part of these is now in a state of loose subjection to the Russian and Chinese empires, principally to the latter. Some, however, remain independent; and these, occupying a large continuous region on the western side of Tatory, may be geographically considered as one people.

The country thus specified is bounded on the north by Asiatic Russia, which in this part stretches into deserts, affording no precise boundary line; on the west by the Persian and Hindoo provinces, separated by deserts and rivers, and by the mountains of Gaur; and on the east by the mountains of Belur, and the lakes and deserts which lie between it and the country of the Eluth Kalmucs. It lies chiefly between the latitudes 35 and 50 degrees, and occupies a breadth of about 870 miles.

The principal divisions of this extensive tract are, first, in the north, the steppes or plains roamed over by three hordes of Kirguses, which, with the country of the Karakalpacs and other Tatarian tribes, compose what has been called Western Turkistan, the original residence of the Turkish nation: to the west, Kharism, an ancient kingdom lying between the Caspian sea and the river Jihoon, and mostly at present naked and desolate: to the south of the mountains Argun and the river Sirr or Sihon, the country of Great Bucharia, divided into several districts or provinces, as Sogd (the ancient Sogdiana) Fergana, Balk, Kilan, &c. forming almost all the fertile and desirable portion of Independent Tatory.

This country in general enjoys a fine climate, although the northern part of it, from its proximity to the Siberian deserts, cannot fail of experiencing severe cold in the winter. The heat which would naturally attend the latitudes in the southern parts, is tempered by the vicinity of high mountains, which retain the snow to a late period of the year.

The face of the country presents great varieties, extending in some parts into wide plains, in others diversified with hill and dale. The soil is usually rich and productive in the tracts of the rivers, but inclined to sterility in the sandy plains and mountains. The general prospect is too naked to please an eye accustomed to rural beauty.

The geography of this country is too little explored to lay down with accuracy the ranges of mountains which traverse it in different directions. It appears, however, that on the east of Great Bucharía there is a great snowy ridge running north and south, either single, under the name of Belur Tag, or double, under that of Mus Tag, composing the ancient Imaus. This ridge unites on the south with the Hindoo Koh and the Gaur mountains, which running east and west, divide Bucharía from Hindostan and Persia. Another ridge, named Ak Tau, is detached more northerly in the same direction, and passes to the north of Samarcand. The snowy ridge at length terminates in the Argjun mountains, which run westerly, and are succeeded by the ridge of Kara Tau, proceeding as far as the sea of Aral. In the country of the Kirguses a ridge occurs named Kisil Tag, which seems to be a branch sent off in a south-western direction from the great Altaian chain. Other branches from the Uralian chain overspread the north-western part of the same country.

The greatest river of Independent Tatory is the Jihoon, called also Amu, the ancient Oxus. Its principal head is in the Belur mountains; but in its progress it receives numerous streams from the Hindoo Koh and Gaur on the south, and the Ak Tau on the north. At length, after being joined by the river of Balk, it takes a north-western direction, which it holds to its termination in the southern side of the sea of Aral. Du-

ring part of its course it forms the boundary between Bucharia and Korazan. Its whole course is computed at 900 miles.

The Sirr or Sihoon, anciently Laxartes, taking its rise in the northern part of the Belur chain, is joined by several streams from the Argun mountains and the Ak Tau, after which it flows north-westerly through the country of Shash, and finally makes its way through unknown deserts to the eastern side of the sea of Aral. A large river named Sarasu from the northern deserts either joins this, or runs separately to the same sea. There are other considerable rivers in the wide country of the Kirguses, but their course through obscure and barbarous regions has been traced with no accuracy.

One of the great features of this country is the salt-lake, or sea of Aral, or of Eagles. This expanse of water is about 200 miles from north to south, and 70 miles from east to west. It lies parallel to, and about 100 miles eastward from, the Caspian sea, with which it is supposed formerly to have communicated. Its situation amidst sandy deserts has caused it to be little explored. The names imply its being frequented by the large birds of prey which make their abode in mountainous wilds, undisturbed by human resort. Several salt-lakes occur in the adjacent solitudes. On the eastern side of Turkestan, between it and the Kalmuc country, is a large lake called the Palkati Nor, which ranks next to those of Aral and Baikal among the Asiatic lakes. Other lakes exist in the intervening district, but they are not deserving of particular notice.

These regions, so different in their soil and climate, of course differ greatly in their productions. The Kirguses and other Tatarian tribes have probably, like the rest of the Tatar nation, been led to their pastoral wandering life by the fitness of their country for rearing the domestic animals, rather than for the culture of vegetables. They abound in horses, camels, beeves and sheep, which find plentiful sustenance in the long grass which clothes the plains after the rainy seasons, and the verdant meadows which border the rivers. The steppes offer numerous wild animals to the chase, such as antelopes, deer, hares, foxes, wolves, &c. The products of Great Bucharia are those of similar latitudes in the cultivated countries of the

east, and grain of different kinds is raised with success. The alpine parts afford some of the animals of Tibet, as the thusk, the Tibet ox, and wild sheep. Gold, silver, quicksilver, copper, and other metals are found in the mountains, with lapis lazuli, and a particular gem called the balay, or pale-rose ruby.

Of the inhabitants of these countries, the Kirguses, divided into the Great, Middle, and Lesser Horde, are a people of undoubted Tatarian origin, distinguished by the features and manners of that race. They dwell in tents of felt, which they carry with them in their migrations from the banks of the Sirr to the steppe of Issim. Their flocks and herds are numerous, and some individuals among them possess a great share of pastoral wealth. They feed chiefly upon the flesh of their sheep, and their favourite drink is koumis, or fermented mare's milk. Each horde is ruled by a khan or prince of its own. They are not accounted valiant, yet they make occasional predatory incursions into the neighbouring countries for the sake of procuring slaves, the mutual fraternity which they profess among each other not permitting them to employ their countrymen in servile offices. Their religion is mahometanism, but of a lax kind, and intermixed with idolatrous superstitions. With the Russians they carry on a traffic by way of exchange, in which their sheep and cattle, skins and camels' hair are bartered for clothes and furniture. With Bucharía they make a similar exchange for weapons and armour. They have no towns of their own, but frequent the towns of Siberia and those upon the Sirr for the purposes of traffic.

The country of Kharism, or Karasm, extending from the Caspian sea to the river Jihoon, was once the head of a considerable kingdom, comprising Khorasan and part of Great Bucharía. It is now chiefly in a desert state, but possesses some walled towns, of which the principal are Khieva and Urjenz. The former is now the capital, and the cultivated district lies chiefly around it. Its commercial products are raw silk, cotton, and lamb's furs. The government of Kharism is absolute, under an independent khan: the religion is ma-

hometan. The country on the eastern shore of the Caspian is very little known.

Great Bucharia, the remaining, and beyond comparison the most interesting part of Independent Tatar, was anciently a portion of the Persian monarchy, and was peopled from the same Scythian stock. It was known to the Greeks and Romans by the names of Bactriana and Sogdiana, and was for some time the seat of a Grecian kingdom. It was a part of the Kharismian empire when conquered by Zingis in the 13th century. Timur made it his principal residence and seat of royalty. A descendant of his was expelled in 1494 by the Uzbek Tatars, who established a powerful monarchy in Bucharia. This came in time to be divided into several sovereignties under their respective khans, in which state it continues at the present day. The population consists of the Uzbeks and the proper Bucharians. The first live after the Tatar manner, dwelling in tents in the summer, and in towns and villages in the winter. The latter inhabit towns and cultivate the land. The religion of both is the mahometan, of the Sunni or orthodox sect, and the government is despotic.

Of the provinces of Bucharia that of Sogd is the most fertile, and its valley is described as a kind of paradise, rich in the finest fruits and the products of agriculture. Its capital is the famous city of Samarcand, which seems to have been in its greatest lustre when Timur held his court in it. This city was distinguished throughout the east as a seat of learning, and possessed the most famous of the mahometan universities. An appropriate manufacture for which it was remarkable was that of silk paper. Its present condition is little known, but it has apparently much declined from its pristine splendour. Bokhara, situated in the same vale with Samarcand, is still a large and populous city, with a considerable trade. It manufactures soap and calico, and deals in cotton, rice, and cattle.

Balk is the principal city of the country south of the Jihoon, and is said to be large, populous, and well built. It manufactures silk from the produce of the vicinity, and is the chief seat of the commerce between Hindostan and Bucharia. Badashan is a small well-built town near the Belur mountains, the inha-

bitants of which are enriched by the mineral product of that region. There are other towns in the province of Bucharìa, but little known. It is to be lamented that this fine country is so little in the track of intelligent travellers ; for Europeans seem to be less acquainted with it than they were some centuries ago. The Bucharìans, however, carry on a considerable trade, and caravans pass regularly between their country and Persia, Hindostan, China, and even Russia.

## PERSIA.

THIS celebrated country has been subject to so many disorders and revolutions that it has become difficult to treat of it as a whole, in which view it has at present rather a geographical than an actual existence. Its whole western side is contiguous to Asiatic Turkey, as far as the entrance of the Euphrates into the Persian gulf, and then follows the eastern shore of that sea; the Indian ocean is its southern limit to the river Amba on the frontier of Hindostan: that river, and an indefinite line running across mountains and deserts, form its eastern boundary on the confines of Multan, Kandahar, and Great Bucharía: to the north it has the country of Kharism and the Caspian sea, the shores of which it accompanies round to nearly its north-western extremity, where a ridge of Caucasus separates it from the Russian dominions. Persia, thus bounded, extends from about the 25th to the 42d degree of N. latitude, and may be estimated at a length of 1200 miles by a breadth of 1000.

The face of country and soil within this space are extremely various. The northern provinces about the Caspian sea are richly clothed with vegetation, and have many situations of extraordinary beauty and fertility. The more southern parts are chiefly divided between lofty mountains and wide plains, both inclined to nakedness and sterility. The valleys, however, display the luxuriance of a southern latitude when supplied with a sufficiency of water; but of this element, the necessary fertilizer of a warm climate, Persia is more destitute than almost any country, except Arabia. Hence a great portion of its surface is wasted in sandy deserts; a circumstance particularly observable in the extensive tract on the shore of the Indian ocean, and the border adjoining to Hindostan. This was



the ancient Gedrosia, through which Alexander the Great, returning from India, led his army, at the imminent hazard of its total destruction by thirst and famine. The temperature of the different parts is extremely different. The high mountains, even far to the south, are subject to severe cold, and the snow lies upon them late in the spring. On the other hand, the heat of the plains and valleys is excessive; and the accounts of its intensity on the borders of the Persian gulf are truly dreadful. The provinces on the Caspian in general enjoy a delightful climate, but their moisture causes them at certain seasons to be very unhealthy.

Persia has been termed a land of mountains; but this character seems chiefly applicable to its western side. From the chain of Caucasus, which is its boundary on the side of Asiatic Russia, ridges descend which border the Caspian sea, and pass round its southern extremity, till they are lost on its eastern side. Other ridges extend over Georgia and to the Turkish border. The lofty Ararat, held sacred as being the supposed resting-place of the ark on the recess of the deluge, stands solitary near Armenia. Southward are the high mountains of Elwend, from which a long double or triple chain stretches in a south-eastern direction towards the centre of Persia, beyond Ispahán. Mountainous ridges crown the eastern border of the Persian gulf, whence they shoot easterly, extending quite across Persia to Kandahar. A ridge from the neighbourhood of Herat on the east joins the Gaur mountains, which run to the south of the kingdom of Balk.

A vast desert, or rather range of deserts, extends quite across from the town of Kom, south of the Caspian sea, to the borders of Hindostan in the south-east, nearly dividing the country into two main portions.

Of the rivers of Persia one of the largest is the Ahwaz, the ancient Choaspis, whose waters were "the drink of kings." It rises in the mountains of Elwend, and takes a southward course, till, after having sent off a communicating branch to the Tigris, it joins the united Euphrates and Tigris near its entrance into the Persian gulf. The streams which enter that gulf and the Indian ocean are in general of short course and

scanty in water. The united Mekshid and Krenk, forming the Mend, crosses the deserts of Mekran, and flows through a long tract ; but it is in an almost unknown district. The same may be said of the boundary river Araba.

Into the Caspian flows from the west the Aras, anciently the Araxes, after joining the Kur, anciently Cyrus, both rising in the region of Caucasus. On the eastern side of the same sea enters the Tedjen, the ancient Ochus, from Khorasan. The great river Jihoon or Amu, which is for a little distance the boundary between Bucharia and Persia, receives from the latter country a considerable tributary stream, the Magrab or Margus.

In the central part of Persia several rivers either flow into lakes, or are lost in the thirsty sands, without being able to force their way to the sea. Of these are the Zenderoud, flowing by Ispahan ; the Bundamir, passing near the ruins of the ancient Persepolis ; and the Hinmend, watering the province of Segistan. None of the Persian rivers appear fit for internal navigation.

There are some considerable lakes in Persia, of which the largest is the lake of Zere, or sea of Zurra or Durra, anciently the Aria Palus, situated in the province of Segistan. It is said to be thirty leagues in length, and a day's journey in breadth, to consist of fresh water, and to be well stored with fish. In the province of Fars, to the east of Shiraz, is the salt-lake of Baktegan. The large lake of Urmia, also saline, is situated near the confines of Turkey, parallel to the southern part of the Caspian. That of Erivan lies 120 miles further to the north. The Caspian sea itself may be regarded as a vast salt-lake, extending about 700 miles from north to south, with a breadth varying from 100 to 200 miles. It is the receptacle of many considerable rivers, though it has no visible outlet ; the evaporation in so hot a climate probably serving to keep the water to its level. The northern shores of this sea are low and swampy, and in many parts overgrown with reeds, the haunt of numerous water-fowl ; on the other sides the shores are frequently precipitous, with unfathomable depth of water. The

good harbours are few, and the navigation is dangerous. The Caspian abounds in fish, particularly of the sturgeon kind.

The climate of Persia renders it capable of every valuable product of the earth, where the soil and situation are favourable. The provinces of Ghilan and Mazanderan on the Caspian have been long famed for their vegetable riches; and various other parts are represented as abounding in every thing necessary for the sustenance, and conducive to the enjoyment, of man. Timber is indeed scarce, and forests are rarely to be met with, except in the northern provinces. The wheat of Persia is excellent, but rice is the grain generally preferred. Barley and millet are also largely cultivated. The agriculture is simple, and the principal skill is employed in contrivances to water the thirsty land: the Persian water-wheel, for this purpose, is a well-known piece of mechanism. In no part of the world are the fine fruits brought to greater perfection. The vine is successfully cultivated in the northern provinces, and also about Shiraz, where is made a wine renowned throughout the east. The mulberry is very frequently planted, for the sake of the silk, which may be termed its product, and of which Persia yields large quantities. The cotton-shrub and sugarcane are common articles of culture. Several of the finest flowers of our gardens are indigenous in Persia.

The Persian horses are esteemed the most perfect in their shape of all in the east, and bear a high price. Mules are chiefly used for servile purposes, and the camel is the principal beast of burden. The horned cattle are small and lean. Sheep are numerous in Erivan and other northern provinces, many of them of the large-tailed variety. The wild animals are those usual in the same eastern climates: of beasts of prey, the lion occurs in the western parts, with the leopard and small tiger,

Of metals, those of lead, copper, and iron, are produced from mines in the mountainous parts; but neither the quantity nor quality are remarkable. The want of skill and of fuel are obstacles to any spirited search after the mineral treasures which this country probably contains. Sulphur, nitre, and common salt are met with in the deserts. Near Baku, on the wes-

tern coast of the Caspian, are some very copious springs of naphtha, or fossil oil.

The name of Persia, originally derived from the province of Pars or Fars, is of great celebrity in ancient history, as applied to the mighty empire which, extending from the borders of India through Lesser Asia and Assyria, was ruled by the Great Kings, so long formidable to the states of Greece, till their throne was overturned by Alexander. Revived with diminished lustre under the name of the Parthian empire, it held a long contest with the Roman power, till, in the seventh century, it was subdued by the successors of Mahomet. After some revolutions, the house of Sefi obtained the crown of Persia in 1501, whence the name of Sophi became the common appellation of its sovereigns. This family was extinguished by the elevation of Nadir Shah or Kouli Khan to the throne in 1736. Since his death, an almost constant succession of civil wars has desolated this unhappy country, down to the present time, in which it appears that the eastern and western parts of Persia are formed into separate and independent governments, the former also comprising some of the adjacent Indian provinces. But the ancient influence of the country in the system of eastern politics seems at an end, and Persia can no longer be considered as what she once was, the rival of the Turkish power on that quarter.

The Persians are a polite, gay, and voluptuous people, of warm passions, cruel in their anger, but hospitable and social. The men are robust and addicted to martial exercises, good horsemen, and skilful archers. They are naturally hard-featured, but take care to improve the breed by the importation of Georgian and Circassian women. They drink wine, notwithstanding the prohibition of their religion, and are fond of music and poetry. They have a high opinion of their own understanding, yet are very little enlightened by science. In their address they are extremely complimentary, and profess much more than they mean.

The Persian language is accounted the sweetest and most elegant of the oriental dialects. It possesses many esteemed productions, especially in history and poetry, which give it a

wide currency among the lovers of literature in the east, where its prevalence may be compared to that of the French in Europe.

The established religion of Persia is the mahometanism of the sect of Ali, which is laxer than that of the Sunnis or orthodox, and is regarded as a kind of heresy by the Turks and other nations. A species of christianity is the prevalent religion of Georgia; and in the province of Erivan there are many Armenians, who are also scattered about in the trading towns. Some of the ancient worshippers of fire are said to be still extant.

The government of Persia has always been despotic, and frequently rigorous and tyrannical. This tyranny descends by gradation, till it is finally exercised upon the peasantry, who live in a deplorable state of depression. The inhabitants of the region of Caucasus, however, a bold and warlike race, live in little subjection, except to their own khans. These are divided into a number of tribes, who speak a variety of languages or mixed jargons. The Persian commerce is carried on by strangers, chiefly Armenians and Hindoos. The natives are averse to the sea, and never possess any naval power.

The capital of Persia is Ispahan, in the province of Irak Ajemi. It is one of the largest cities of the east, and a century ago was very populous, but has probably been much reduced by the disordered state of the country. It possesses some grand public buildings, but its streets are narrow and crooked, and the houses in general are of mean appearance. Its suburb of Julfa is the principal residence of the Armenian merchants.

Shiraz, the capital of Farsistan, the ancient Persis, is situated in a fertile valley enjoying a delicious climate. It is a considerable and handsome city, and its neighbourhood is adorned by many pleasing summer retreats in the midst of gardens. Tebriz or Tauris, in Aderbijan, used to be reckoned the second city of Persia, but was greatly injured by an earthquake about a century ago. Its bazars and public edifices are spacious and grand, and its principal square is of remarkable extent. The situation of this city, near some of the highest moun-

tains of Caucasus, renders its temperature cold, but it is reckoned one of the healthiest places in Persia.

Teflis, the capital of Georgia, is populous, but meanly built : its principal commerce is in furs. Erivan, the capital of Persian Armenia, is considerable in extent, but not otherwise distinguished. Derbend, on the Caspian sea, is a place of ancient note for its fortifications, called the iron-gates, which closed the entrance into Persia. Its massy walls, still in being, with lofty towers, are curious specimens of ancient architecture. Its harbour is a road with bad anchorage, which renders it a place of little commerce, except internally with the province of Ghilan. Baku has the only good harbour on that side of the Caspian. Rasht, the capital of Ghilan, is the staple of the silk trade of those parts. Casbin was once so considerable as to be reckoned the capital of Persia, but is much declined. Kom supports a large population by its manufactures of pottery, soap, and sword-blades. It is distinguished by the magnificent tombs of two of the Sophis.

On the Persian gulf lies Bandar Abassi, otherwise Gombroon, a port once of great trade, but now much declined. It is very unhealthy, and subject to excessive heats. Opposite to it is the famous commercial town of Ormus, built upon a small island of barren sand, without water, but once abounding in every luxury that opulence could procure. It was a mart of the Portuguese, who settled upon it, and held it against the consent of the Persian monarchs, till they were expelled by Abbas the Great, with the assistance of the English. Yezd, near the centre of Persia, is of note for the manufacture of carpets and stuffs made of camel's hair, and also of porcelain. Of the latter article, the finest is made at Zarang in Segistan. Herat, in Khorasan, is the most respectable city of Eastern Persia, and enjoys a considerable trade. Meshid, further to the north, is, however, the capital of that large province, and is rendered venerable by the tomb of the Imam Musa.

The preceding enumeration of the principal towns will give an idea of the chief articles of the Persian commerce, which was formerly flourishing in consequence of several valuable products and manufactures ; the latter, superior in their kind

to any in the east. At present, the silks, mohairs, and carpets of Persia are almost the only commodities known in European markets.

Nothing has more excited the curiosity of travellers into the east than the ruins of the ancient capital of this empire, the famed Persepolis. They are situated at Istakar, to the north of Shiraz, and present a magnificent display of massy portals, spacious halls, and broken columns, with a multitude of rude designs and illegible inscriptions, all in a barbarous taste.

## ARABIA.

THE south-western part of Asia consists of a large tract of land which may be regarded as a peninsula, having sea on three sides of it. Its direction is from north-west to south-east; and it is of an irregular oblong form, widening towards the south. Its western side is the straight shore of the Red sea, which separates it for its whole length from Africa, except where the two continents are joined on the north by the narrow isthmus of Suez. Its southern side lies upon the Indian ocean, whence a channel leads up the Persian gulf: this last gives a maritime boundary to two thirds of the eastern side; the rest may be considered as formed by the river Euphrates, though the deserts on its bank are not precisely assigned to any geographical division of country. The same may be observed of the northern side, which winds indefinitely among the deserts bordering on Syria. This great space, named Arabia, is contained between the 13th and 34th degrees of N. latitude; and the diagonal line from the north-east to the south-west angle is estimated at 1500 miles. Its medial breadth may be about 750 miles.

A country so extensive, and enjoying such a share of solar influence, might be expected to rank high in the scale of human population, and to abound in the gifts of nature; but while the ancients reckoned three divisions of Arabia, they denominated two the Stony and the Desert, and only one the Happy; and the increased geographical knowledge of the moderns has only served to augment the proportion of sterility.

Arabia has been compared to a coarse mantle with a rich border, and even this border is far from being complete. Almost the whole central part appears to be a dreary waste of sand, destitute of running streams, and consequently of trees and herbage; unfit for the residence of man, and presenting in



the map only the tracks of caravans, with the stations where wells of brackish water afford a scanty refreshment to the parched traveller and exhausted camel.

Nothing in nature can be more melancholy and disheartening than the aspect of these interminable deserts; as few human sufferings can surpass those to which the adventurers are exposed whom the love of gain or the spirit of devotion impels to traverse them. To the evils of hunger, thirst, heat, and fatigue, and the danger of wandering where no objects mark out the path, are added the perils of whirlwinds raising clouds of sand that often overwhelm whole caravans, and of the fiery blast of the desert, the *samiël*, of which a single inhalation is death. That in comparison with these, the maritime parts of Arabia should be termed happy, and extolled as the region of beauty and fertility, is not to be wondered at; and where the diversity of hill and dale, and the influence of refreshing rains and running streams, invite the residence of man, this country affords in sufficient abundance the rich products of a southern latitude.

The present leading divisions of Arabia are, *Hedjaz*, the long strip of land bordering the Red sea; *Yemen*, the southern angle of the same side; *Hadramaut*, the border of the Indian ocean; *Ommon*, its angle towards the Persian gulf; *Lahsa*, northward on the same gulf; and the vast district of *Nedjed*, occupying the central parts, and consisting almost entirely of deserts, with a few insulated spots of culture.

The principal range of mountains follows the coast of the Red sea. At the northern extremity it keeps near to the shore. In this part is *Sinai*, so famous in the history of the Jews. Afterwards it diverges further from the sea; and at the southern extremity it overspreads the district of *Yemen* (the ancient *Arabia Felix*) so as to give it a general mountainous character. A chain of heights accompanies the coast of the Indian sea, and turns round to the Persian gulf, forming a hilly district in *Ommon*. The map exhibits a ridge running directly across the middle of the peninsula, from *Mecca* to *Lahsa*; but this appears to be made out with little precision. Other ridges, not

more accurately ascertained, diversify the face of the desert northwards.

Not a single river of any importance enters the seas which wash the Arabian shores. From the mountains of Yemen several torrents flow during the rainy season, but scarcely any of them endure through the summer droughts. The most considerable of them appears to be that which from the town of Sana runs southward to the Indian ocean. Want of water is the characteristic defect of Arabia.

The vegetable products of this country are very scanty. The few native plants of the deserts are mostly of the succulent saline class, which can bear the rays of a vertical sun, with no other refreshment than the nocturnal dews. In the more favourable situations, the plants both of the temperate and the torrid zone are met with. Those of most value are the tamarind, the Indian fig, the date palm, the cotton shrub, pomegranate, orange, and especially the coffee shrub, and the amyris opobalsamum, which yields the celebrated balm of Mecca. Agriculture is chiefly occupied in the growth of wheat, barley, maize, durra (a kind of millet) tobacco, the sugar-cane, some dying drugs, and the coffee which arrives at such peculiar perfection in Arabia.

Among domestic animals the first place must be assigned to the horse, of which Arabia claims the noblest breed in the world. The pure race, termed Kochlani, is derived from ancestry whose blood has passed undebased through the well-attested descents of several centuries down to the present time. These are chiefly bred by the Bedoween or wandering Arabs of the deserts stretching between Persia and Syria. They are brought up in the tents like children of the family, fondly caressed and carefully tended, and constitute the most valued property of the owners. They are neither large, nor (according to common estimation) handsome, but possess in a supreme degree the qualities of swiftness, perseverance, and docility. It is to the mixture of Arabian blood that the finest horses of many other countries, particularly those of England, owe their superiority, and new importations are continually made to preserve the points of excellence. The asses of Arabia

are likewise of superior quality, and in their form resemble mules.

But the domestic peculiarly adapted to the soil and climate is the amel, which, in the metaphorical language of the east, has been named "the ship of the desert." Formed by nature beyond any other quadruped to endure the extremities of heat and thirst, and to support life at little expense, it holds its steady course day after day over the sandy wilderness, submitting patiently to its burden, and contenting itself with occasionally browsing the prickly half-withered plants scattered on the way-side. Its internal receptacles for water enable it to subsist without drinking for the several successive days that sometimes are spent in passing from one well to another. It is by means of caravans of camels that goods and passengers are conveyed from the shores of the Red sea to the Persian gulf and the cities of Syria, which would otherwise be destitute of all mutual communication. The Arabian camels have uniformly-but one bunch; they vary, however, in size and shape, some being best fitted for riding, and others for carrying loads. Of the former, some are said to perform their journeys more expeditiously than the best horse.

The other riches of the pastoral Arabs are chiefly sheep and goats. The scanty pastures will scarcely admit of keeping herds of the beeve kind.

Of wild animals are the antelope, the wild ass, the wild boar, the wolf, fox, jackall, hyæna, the panther, and the lion only on the banks of the Euphrates. The ostrich, which among birds is like the camel among quadrupeds, roams the desert in flocks, and at its full speed can scarcely be overtaken by the best-mounted hunter. Locust often appear in swarms that darken the air, which, after devouring all the verdure of a fertile district, are borne away by the wind to perish in the sea or on the naked sands.

The mineral products of Arabia are of small importance; indeed, if they were offered by nature, the circumstances of the country would little favour their extraction. Some mines of iron and lead are wrought, and silver is found intermixed with lead. The gold and gems which were thought to be native in

this country are now discovered to have been brought hither in commerce from India.

The people of Arabia are a very ancient race, of the same stock with the Assyrians, and recorded in the annals of mankind with their present characteristics as far back as history ascends. The peninsula seems never to have been united under one head, except by Mahomet and his immediate successors. At other times it has been possessed by a number of tribes, some living in a wild independence, others settled and forming civilized states. The boast of its being a never-conquered country is only true with respect to those predatory and pastoral tribes, who, when pressed by a foreign foe, could withdraw into the recesses of deserts only known to themselves, and inaccessible to regular armies. The inhabitants of Arabia Felix and of other cultivated districts have been repeatedly subjugated by foreigners.

The Arab possesses several striking features which distinguish him among the races of mankind. He is generally of a spare habit, and small stature, but nervous and active; temperate in diet, grave in demeanour, and polite in speech, but subject to strong passions; brave, vindictive, and resentful; liberally hospitable and faithful to the stranger who confides in or has purchased his friendship; otherwise, regarding all men out of his own tribe as foes, and scrupling no act of hostility against them; of a warm imagination, and easily roused to enthusiasm; capable of knowledge and letters, but habitually ignorant.

In the seventh century of the christian era, a pretended prophet arose in Arabia, who, inspiring his countrymen with the fanaticism which, though an impostor, he seems really himself to have felt, led them to conquest, and spread a new faith over a large portion of the civilized world. Mahomet was untinctured with letters or philosophy; and his Koran, or book of law and religion, is an incoherent rhapsody of sublime divinity and morality, mingled with trifling ritual precepts, mystical reveries, and ill-digested laws. By debarring his followers from the use of intoxicating liquors, he cut off a source of internal disorder, and displayed an influence beyond that of most

legislators ; whilst, in giving way to a more powerful propensity in a hot climate, by indulgence with respect to women, he forbore to put their obedience to too severe a trial. His religion effectually banished idolatry from all the nations that received it, but substituted fanaticism and a spirit of intolerance, and set a limit to all improvement. His successors establishing themselves in some of the finest countries of the world, left their native land in its former poverty and insignificance ; and Arabia at this day, like Palestine, retains no other marks of a triumphant faith, than the veneration paid to the birth-place and tomb of its founder.

The Arabic language is pre-eminent among those of the east for its strength and copiousness ; and being the sacred tongue, as well as that in which works of science were composed during the short lettered period of the Saracen caliphs, it is studied in all the seminaries of learning in mahometan countries, and by those in Europe who aspire to oriental scholarship. The vulgar Arabic of the present day is varied by numerous dialects, and differs greatly from the language of the Koran. It is, however, a speech widely diffused, and will serve the traveller from Morocco to Hindostan.

The internal parts of Arabia are chiefly inhabited by the wandering tribes called Bedoweens, whose occupation is tending their flocks and herds from place to place, and plundering all the passing caravans which they are able to master. The habits of depredation are strongly marked in their ferocity, inhumanity, extortion, and contempt of all the laws of civilized society ; and they are regarded with terror and abhorrence by all who have the misfortune to fall in their way. They are under the lax control of chiefs named emirs and shieks ; and the different tribes are generally at variance with one another when not united in some scheme of plunder.

The Arabs on the sea-coast live in more regular society, and are addicted to merchandise, though their own navigation is very rude and confined. By those who have had dealings with them they are charged with the basest perfidy and exaction. Yemen is the country in which government seems to be most

efficacious, as it is also the seat of the principal manufactures and arts of life

Of the few cities and towns of Arabia, Mecca ranks the first, on account of the veneration in which it is held, and the great confluence of pilgrims to the birth-place of the prophet. It was regarded as a holy city even before the time of Mahomet; and its Kaaba, or house of God, was an idolatrous temple before it was converted to the worship of one God, according to the mussulman ritual. Mecca is situated in a barren and arid plain, destitute of every advantage. It is said to be well built, and moderately populous; but its entrance being interdicted to unbelievers, little is known of it by Europeans. It maintains a communication with the west by means of the port of Jedda or Judda on the Red sea. As it is a religious duty in every mussulman who is possessed of the means, to visit Mecca once in his life, caravans arrive at the proper season from all parts. The caravan from Turkey composes a little army, and brings a rich annual present from the sultan.

Medina, another of the holy cities, is only remarkable as the place of Mahomet's tomb. Saana, the capital of Yemen, is accounted the principal city in Arabia: it is, however, neither large nor splendid. Mocha, a sea-port town in the same province, gives its name to the finest coffee, of which it is the place of export. It is frequented by vessels from the English settlements in Hindostan. Moskat, a port at the entrance of the Persian gulf, is a place of considerable commerce, and a mart of the trade between Arabia, Persia, and the Indies: it is well known to the European navigators. Lahsa, the capital of the province of that name, is large and well-built. The stream on which it stands is dried up in the summer.

To Arabia belongs the isle of SOCOTRA; lying off cape Guardafu in Africa, at the entrance of the Red sea, and celebrated for the produce of the finest aloes used in medicine: also, the isle of BAHREIN in the Persian gulf, noted for its great pearl fishery.

## HINDOSTAN.

THE rich and extensive country known by this name, and also by that of India within the Ganges, is in great part marked by nature for a separate geographical district, though with no exactness of limit. The general idea of it is that of the region lying between the rivers Indus and Ganges, and the Indian ocean; but neither do the rivers form determinate boundaries in their course, nor do they approach so as to make out a northern limit. Recourse must therefore be had to an arbitrary division in order to identify the tract of country which is to be treated of under this designation; and it may be comprised within the following limits. On the west the line of coast terminates at the river Araba, the channel of which is the boundary on the Persian frontier as far as it goes: the line is then taken up by mountains and deserts, till it ends in the Gaur mountains, or the Hindoo Koh, leaving Candahar and Cabul on the Indian side. The northern line then runs indistinctly along the southern ridges of the Tibetan Alps, still declining to the south-east, till it reaches another ridge separating Bengal from Assam, Cassay, and Aracan: it there again meets with the sea, which, finishes the eastern boundary down to cape Comorin, the southern point of the part commonly called the peninsula. This space extends from about the 8th to the 35th degree of N. latitude, being a length of 1880 English miles: its extreme breadth may be reckoned at 1600 miles; but this it holds only across the middle, from which it rapidly diminishes each way.

In point of climate this whole tract may be reckoned to lie within the hot latitudes; for though the northern boundary-ridge is covered with perpetual snow, yet winter seems confined to the other side of the mountains, and Hindostan in general knows only the vicissitudes of dry and rainy seasons, of moderate and excessive heat.

The face of the country cannot but be greatly diversified in such a vast compass ; but upon the whole it may be regarded as consisting of wide plains, watered by numerous rivers, and only occasionally crossed by ranges of mountains, or deformed by tracts of desert. Of the mountains, the northern alpine chain may rather be adjudged to the adjacent countries than to Hindostan ; yet it throws off branches southward which overspread the little kingdom of Cashmere, and shoot into Kittore, Cabul, and Candahar. Eastward of the Sind or Indus, a long ridge stretches almost from the confines of Tibet to the western sea near the mouth of that river, having on each side a wide tract of sandy desert. From Guzerat a ridge begins which runs southward, parallel to and near the western sea-coast, quite to its southern extremity, bearing the name of the Western Gauts. From it a ridge proceeds through the southern part of the Mysore country towards the opposite coast, to which it runs parallel for a considerable way, under the name of the Eastern Gauts. After some interruption, this is continued northwards in a ridge along the coast of the district termed the Sircars. A hilly tract occupies the middle region of Hindostan to the north of the river Nerbuddah. From this sketch it will appear that the principal mountainous chains in Hindostan are its inland boundaries on the north, and the margins of its coasts on the south, leaving the great mass of interior country comparatively level.

One of the principal rivers of this country is that which gave it both its classical name of India, and its Persian appellation of Hindostan, namely, the Indus or Sindeh. Its source is not ascertained, but it seems to come from a country to the north of the mountains bordering on Little Tibet. In its progress through the north-western part of Hindostan it is joined by several tributary streams, five of which are so considerable as to have given to the country through which they flow the name of Panjab, or the land of five rivers. All the southern part of its course is through a country little known, and apparently thinly inhabited. Near the sea it divides into many branches, which separately enter the ocean between the confines of Persia and the gulf of Cutch. Its course through Hindostan may be computed at 1000 miles. A large river further to the east, the Cag-



gar, flows in a direction towards the lower part of the Sindeh ; but it is not ascertained whether it joins that river, or enters the gulf of Cutch separately. Into the head of that gulf the Puddar next discharges itself, coming down from the vicinity of Agimere, and forming the northern boundary of Guzerat.

The Nerbuddah, after flowing from east to west across the greatest part of the middle breadth of Hindostan, enters the western sea at the gulf of Cambay. This river was by the Indian geographers considered as the southern boundary of Hindostan, all the peninsular part to the south being named by them the Deccan. It is succeeded by the Taftée, which gives a harbour to the great commercial city of Surat. No stream of consequence afterwards passes the high chain of the Western Gauts down to cape Comorin.

As the western side of Hindostan is distinguished by the grand feature of the Indus, so the eastern is marked with the course of a still more famous and magnificent river, the Ganges, a sacred stream to the numerous inhabitants on its banks. The remotest source of this river, though marked in some maps, can scarcely be considered as accurately explored ; but it may be reckoned to take its rise somewhere in the western mountains of Tibet. Early in its course it has a remarkable fall or cataract through a vast cavern in a hill into a bason worn in the rock, which is called the Cow's mouth. It enters Hindostan in the province of Dehli ; and flowing south-eastward by the cities of Conoge, Allahabad, Benares, and Patna, continually augmented by tributary streams, it at length divides into several channels, intersecting the lower part of the province of Bengal, and by many capacious mouths discharges itself into the bay of Bengal. One of its branches, named the Hoogli, is distinguished by the site of the splendid city of Calcutta. The Ganges at its exit forms a network of river-islands, overspread by tangled thickets and lofty trees, abounding in game, and the haunt of the royal tiger, which admits with impunity no human intruders into his domain.

Of the principal tributaries to the Ganges are, the Jumna, keeping nearly a parallel course with it, as it flows from the boundary mountains by Dehli and Agra, till it falls in at Alla-

habad : the Gagra, or Sarjoo, rising in the Tibetan mountains to the east of the Ganges, and, after crossing the province of Oude, making its junction above Patna : and the Soan, springing from the same high ground whence the Nerbuddah has its source, and, after taking a direction contrary to that river, meeting the Ganges near its junction with the Gagra.

All these streams, however, are eclipsed by the great Burrampooter, which is rather the rival and equal of the Ganges than its tributary. Rising, as is supposed, not far from the head of that river in Tibet, it takes at first a contrary course through the country of Tibet, under the name of Sanpoo ; then, making a great bend westward through the kingdom of Assam, it enters the province of Bengal above the Garrow mountains, and flows on to meet the principal branch of the Ganges below Dacca. The course of the Burrampooter is estimated to be nearly equal to that of the Ganges, which last is calculated at 1400 miles. The Ganges and its communicating rivers are subject to great inundations from the periodical rains in the spring and summer ; and all the lower parts of Bengal are laid completely under water by the end of July.

Other considerable rivers on the eastern side of Hindostan are, the Godaveri, which, rising in the Western Gauts, flows directly eastward, receiving many streams from the central parts : at a short distance before it enters the sea it is joined by the Bain Gonga, a river from the north, which crosses a wild and little explored country full of forests. Next is the Kistna, a sacred river to the Hindoos, springing from the same Gauts near Poonah, and entering the sea to the north of Masulipatam : it is joined by the Beemah on the northern side, and the Toombudra on the southern, both considerable streams. The Caveri is the last that requires mention : it passes by Seringapatam, the capital of Mysore, in its course to the sea south of Cuddalore. The whole of the Deccan, or southern part of Hindostan, abounds in streams, which diffuse fertility in their course, and by their inundations frequently extend the benefit of their waters to a wide surrounding tract.

No country perhaps on the globe unites so many advantages for the sustenance and propagation of animal and vegetable life

as Hindostan, whence its products of both are extremely numerous and singularly luxuriant. Those extensive districts which are still in a state of nature, and not sandy deserts, are overgrown with thick forests of stately height, composed of a great variety of timber trees, of which the teak supplies the place of the European oak in its fitness for the purposes of house and ship building. In these woods a number of creeping plants of extraordinary size and length runs from tree to tree in festoons, connecting the whole into one mass of verdure. The river banks and marshy grounds are covered with impenetrable thickets, or jungles, as they are called, the secure resort of game and beasts of prey. In such situations the bamboo reed grows, the most useful for economical purposes of all the natives of hot climates. In the tropical latitudes the family of palms abounds, rearing high in the air their naked trunks, crowned with green tufts of light and spreading foliage. Nothing can surpass the beauty and fragrance of the flowering shrubs that decorate the groves; and the skilful botanist alone can reckon up and describe the numerous fruit-bearing trees, and the plants which serve useful purposes in rural economy or the arts.

The farinaceous grain which is the principal object of culture in Hindostan, as well as in the countries further eastward, is rice, the food, probably, of a greater portion of mankind than any other single article. Nothing can be so well adapted to the rich inundated plains which border its great rivers, and in such situations the produce is very abundant. There are also varieties of this plant which are adapted to the higher grounds; nor does it refuse any soil that can receive the benefit of watering. Millet and maize, wheat and barley, are among the cultivated grains; and many of the oily seeds are grown for their use both in food and domestic economy. The sugar-cane prospers exceedingly in some situations, and its culture has lately been much extended. Tobacco, opium, indigo, cotton, pepper, the cocoa-nut, the mulberry (for silk) and a variety of other vegetable articles, are enumerated among the products raised for internal consumption or exportation.

Domestic animals of the beeeve kind seem to be the favourites, and are reared in great numbers for their milk, and their use as

beasts of draught and burden, even where they are esteemed too sacred to be slaughtered for their flesh. Buffaloes occur, both wild and tame, and ghee or butter is chiefly made from their milk. The Hindoo cattle are generally small and of a white colour, with large semicircular horns, and a bunch between their shoulders. The sheep, in all the southern parts, are clothed with hair instead of wool. Horses are numerous, as appears from the vast bodies of cavalry which are brought into the field by the native armies: they are generally slight and of small size, but active and spirited. Camels are not uncommon as beasts of burden. The elephant may be accounted one of the domesticated quadrupeds, as it is frequently kept for purposes of state, and also for the useful application of its strength. Though found wild in some of the forests, it is often imported from other countries.

Of wild quadrupeds are the rhinoceros, many kinds of the deer and antelope tribes, monkeys, and apes in great variety and abundance, wild boars, almost all the inferior beasts of prey, and the royal or Bengal tiger, at once the most beautiful and the most terrible of carnivorous animals. The lion is seen only among the northern mountains. The hunting-leopard, half reclaimed from its savage state, is employed as an auxiliary in the chase—an amusement pursued in no country in a more magnificent style, or with more of the pomp and circumstance of war. Every department of zoology is profusely furnished in this prolific country; and the feathered, the reptile and the insect classes present a splendid and inexhaustible variety of subjects.

Of the mineral riches, the diamond stands pre-eminent. The mines of this precious gem in Golconda and Visiapour are the most famous in the known world, and afford an article of commerce which seems likely to retain its value, though founded on a fanciful estimate. Other fine gems are the produce of these regions; but metallic ores appear to be little known or little attended to throughout Hindostan. Copper mines are indeed mentioned as having been formerly worked in the northern provinces. Nitre is extracted from the soil in various districts, and is a principal article of export.

The general population of this country may be considered as indigenous ; that is, no foreign source is known from which it is derived. The natives of Hindostan are strongly characterized as a separate race of men. Their colour varies according to the latitude from deep olive to almost totally black ; but their cast of features is entirely different from that of the African negroes, and resembles the European. Their hair, also, though universally black, is not woolly. They are usually slightly made, with slender flexible limbs, and are much inferior to Europeans in bodily strength. In character they are mild, gentle, timid, submissive, opposing patience and cunning, rather than open resistance, to the oppressions of tyranny. They are very abstemious, and capable of undergoing the severest mortifications ; extremely simple in their mode of living, and easily contented with mere necessaries. They have little invention, but great powers of imitation ; and, though void of active energy, have much persevering industry. Abjectly superstitious, firmly attached to ancient customs and opinions, they passively yield to every imposition sanctioned by authority, and appear incapable of exerting any kind of free-agency. They have in all ages been an easy prey to foreign conquerors, and have implicitly submitted to domestic tyranny over their minds and persons.

No circumstance so much contributes to keep the Hindoos in their stationary condition, as the singular distribution of society into hereditary and immutable divisions called casts. Of these there are four ; that of the bramins, priests or men of letters ; of the military ; of the farmers and traders ; and of the labourers and artisans. These are as much separated, and have as little mutual communication, as people of a different nation or rather of a different species. They cannot intermarry, nor join in any of the common occupations or offices of life, nor can they remove from one cast to another. Those of the superior casts look down with unspeakable contempt on those of the inferior, and consider themselves as polluted by their approach ; and even the lowest Hindoos refuse to eat with strangers of any rank whatever. The loss of cast degrades them to a condition like that of excommunicated persons, cut off from all human society, and regarded as impure and detestable animals. The

bramin cast holds all the rest in the bonds of a system of superstition and fanaticism of the most burdensome and humiliating kind. The foundation of their religion is the belief of one supreme being, of a nature too sublime and incomprehensible to be the object of human devotion, which is therefore addressed to a multitude of subordinate deities, concerning whom the wildest and most fanciful histories or allegories are recorded in their sacred writings. The ritual consists of an abundance of sacrifices, prayers, and lustrations; and rigid devotees often proceed to penances and mortifications of astonishing severity, and not unfrequently to suicide. Marriage takes place at a very early age; and polygamy is permitted, but one of the wives is looked upon as superior to the rest. In the higher casts it has been customary for the favourite wife to burn herself with the body of her deceased husband, but this practice is now becoming rare. The bramins abstain totally from animal food and fermented liquors; and the other casts exercise an uncommon degree of temperance and self-denial.

The mahometans or moor-men, as they are called, of whom there are considerable numbers in some parts of India, differ greatly in character from the proper Hindoos. They are much less submissive and gentle, and, though equally bigoted to their religion, are dissolute in their manners. The women who devote themselves to the pleasures of the Europeans are chiefly of this class. The men are much engaged in military service.

Several languages are in use within the limits of Hindostan. The Sanscrit is the sacred dialect in which their scriptures or books of religion are written: it has long ceased to be a spoken tongue, and is understood only by the learned. The Devanagari, or proper Hindostanee, is spoken in its purity at Benares, and its characters are written throughout the northern part of India. The Tamulac and Malabar are chiefly used in the south; and the extensive country of the Mahrattas has its own language, called the Marashda. On the whole, ten different languages or dialects are enumerated in Hindostan, many of which have their own peculiar alphabets.

Of the antiquity of the Hindoo literature there are different opinions: but the claims of the bramins are manifestly extrava-

gant; and their chronology, though pretended to be founded on astronomical observations, is deserving of no credit. Some of their productions, which have been translated into the European languages, exhibit a sublime but mystic theology, and a pure morality: others are not destitute of poetic description and elegant sentiment. In many parts of the country are seen relics of ancient art and magnificence, which indicate a very remote civilization, and bear little resemblance to the monuments of other countries. Of these, none in point of labour are comparable to the excavations in the isles of Elephanta and Salsette, and at Ellora, forming vast edifices of highly ornamented architecture hewn out of the solid rock.

In manufactures, especially of cotton, the Hindoos long ago attained great celebrity: and to this day there are no fabrics of the kind so exquisitely fine and beautiful as are made in India with the simplest mechanism, aided by the delicate touch and laborious patience of the natives. They possess many dying materials, which they know how to apply to the best advantage, so as to give their coloured articles a durable brilliancy scarcely elsewhere to be paralleled. They have also attained great perfection in delicate works in metal and ivory; but their manufactures in general embrace few objects, and are less ingenious than those of China and Japan. In agriculture, the most necessary of all arts, their practices display little intelligence, and their instruments are feeble and inefficacious. From this cause, joined with defects in government, famines are frequent and highly calamitous.

The history of this country records several invasions from its northern neighbours, who were always able to subdue the districts which they attacked, and who mingled their own population with that of the natives. The introduction of the mahometan religion was one remarkable consequence of these inroads; and the establishment of the Mogul empire in the 16th century rendered it predominant, though the religion of only a small proportion of the inhabitants. This empire, which began in the north, was extended by Aurengzebe over the whole of Hindostan, and was attended with great rapacity, and the intolerant spirit which naturally accompanies an exclusive faith. Mean-

time many of the native princes maintained a degree of independence ; and civil wars and revolutions succeeded each other with rapidity. The interference of the European powers became a fertile source of further changes. After the discovery of the passage round the cape of Good Hope, the Portuguese began to trade to Hindóstan, and established settlements on its western coast, partly by permission of the local sovereigns, partly by conquest. From many of these they were expelled by the Dutch, who pursued a similar plan. On the eastern side the French and English chiefly formed their settlements. The former nation adopted the policy of interfering as allies to one party in the wars of the native powers, and thereby obtained grants of territory. The English, their constant rivals at home and abroad, formed counter-alliances ; and, being better supported from the mother country, and more ably conducted, finally prevailed in the struggle. From that period the English power in Hindostan has increased to an astonishing degree, till at length the Company of Merchants trading to the East Indies has acquired territorial possessions in this quarter which, in point of extent and population, greatly surpass the whole British empire in Europe. The Mogul empire being reduced to insignificance, the English may now be regarded as the ruling power in Hindostan ; and it is impossible to foresee how far the spirit of ambition and avarice will carry the governors of these remote dependencies in the pursuit of further conquest. Meantime the condition of the people, it is hoped, has been improved by the substitution of regular laws and enlightened policy to the former despotism and ignorance ; and as it has been a principle to interfere as little as possible with their religion, manners, and customs, and the country is not colonized, but only governed, by Europeans, the native population remains, and many of the Hindoo institutions continue in full vigour.

The present state of Hindostan, divided into a great number of separate and independent governments, renders a sketch of every particular district necessary, in order to afford a competent view of its civil and political circumstances.

On the north-western frontier are the provinces of SINDY and MULTAN, traversed by the river Indus. The respective



capitals are Tatta and Multan, neither of them of much note. The extensive line of country on the Persian border seems to be in great part desert.

Further north are the two frontier provinces of CANDAHAR and CABUL, now possessed by a Persian prince, who has made an extensive kingdom out of the eastern provinces of Persia. His capital is Cabul, a large city in a healthy and romantic situation. The province of Cabul is varied with hills, streams, and woods, like the fine countries of the temperate zone, and is cooled by breezes from mountains covered with perpetual snow. Ghisni or Gazna is remarkable as the seat of the first mahometan conquerors of India, thence called the Gasnavide sultans.

CASHMERE, a small province to the east of Cabul, inclosed in mountains, is represented as one of the most delicious spots on the globe, and on that account was the favourite retreat of the Great Moguls during the heats of summer. Its rich vale is abundant in rice, while wheat and other grains thrive on the sides of its hills. It is famous for its manufacture of the fine shawls, so much esteemed in commerce, the material of which is said to come from Tibet. The Cashmirians are a gay and lively people, with brown complexions, and coarse broad features. Their capital, which some call Cashmere, and others Sirinagur, is large and populous, but meanly built.

LAHORE, south of Cashmere, contains the country termed Panjab, and, from the abundance of its rivers, must be a fertile district. It is the chief seat of the new religious sect called Seiks, whose faith nearly approaches pure theism. The capital, Lahore, is a large city, once the residence of the mahometan conquerors. An avenue of trees formerly reached from it to Agra, a distance of near 500 miles. The dominions of the Seiks also comprehend part of Multan, and the western part of Dehli.

In the provinces of DEHLI and AGRA are the poor remains of the Mogul empire. Dehli was the most celebrated city of India before it underwent the terrible devastation of the ferocious conqueror Nadir Shah. Though in great part ruined, it possesses many remains of ancient grandeur, palaces, mosque,

and pleasure-houses, in the richest style of mahometan architecture. Agra, which was made the capital by sultan Acbar, and arose to extraordinary magnificence, has undergone a rapid decline. Canouge, a ruined city, is said to occupy a larger site by its relics than that of London. Agimere, the capital of a province of that name lying eastward of Dehli, is distinguished for its strong fortress.

OUDE, to the east of Agra, is a frontier province on the north. It is subject to a nabob, who is an ally of the English, and of great consequence in the political system of that part of India. His capital is Lucknow, a large and populous city. Allahabad, to the south, in the province of that name, a place of great antiquity, but nearly in ruins, is in his dominions.

Next, proceeding eastwards, occurs the principal mass of the British possessions in India, consisting of the rich and populous provinces of BAHAR and BENGAL. Calcutta, the capital of British India, is situated upon a branch of the Ganges, a hundred miles from the sea, but accessible to the largest merchant-ships. It is supposed to contain half a million of inhabitants, who are a mixture of various nations, each living according to their peculiar mode. The part occupied by the British resembles a splendid European city, decorated with palaces and public edifices equally solid and magnificent. Calcutta is the residence of the governor-general, of the principal courts of justice and officers civil and military, and of many opulent merchants, who live in a style of Asiatic pomp combined with the refined luxury of Europe. Their establishments of domestics are numerous beyond any thing known in the western world, on account of the custom of the natives to employ themselves in only one office, appertaining to their particular cast. Calcutta possesses a great commerce, and is the staple of several commodities of the first importance. It has a college for the instruction, in the oriental languages, of the youths sent out in the company's service, and also a scientific society, which has published some volumes of Asiatic Researches.

Dacca, near the junction of the Burrampooter with the Ganges, is noted for the finest muslins, manufactured from the cotton grown in its district. Moorshedabad is the capital of

the province of Bengal, as Patna is that of Bahar : from the latter city is exported the greatest part of the salt-petre which comes from India to England. Benares, on the Ganges, is a rich and populous city, famous as being the earliest seat of the braminical doctrine, which was and still is taught in its colleges. It is regarded with peculiar reverence by the Hindoos.

Of the central part of Hindostan the greater portion belongs to the MAHRATTAS, a native people, under the rule of a number of chiefs or princes, who acknowledge a common head named the Paishwa. They are divided into two states, that of Berar in the east, and Poonah in the west. Deviating from the usual mild and pacific character of the Hindoos, the Mahrattas consider themselves as always in a state of war, and are continually in the field with numerous bodies, especially of cavalry. Since the decline of the Mogul empire they have recovered large tracts of country from the mahometan sway ; and they are at present the most formidable checks to the British power in India. The eastern Mahrattas possess the provinces of ORISSA and BERAR : their capital is Nagpour, which may be reckoned the central city of Hindostan. The western Mahrattas have parts of Agra, Allahabad, and Agimere ; MALWA, in which is the large city of Oujein ; GUZERAT, CANDEISH, and other provinces further to the south.

The province of Guzerat is a kind of peninsula in the Indian ocean on the west, of which Amedabad is the capital. Cambay, on the gulf of that name, is a handsome town, formerly of great commerce, which it has in great measure lost by the choaking up of its harbour. To the south of it, on the same gulf, is the great commercial city of Surat, the principal port of intercourses between the mahometan states and Hindostan, and much frequented by the Europeans when under the dominion of Portugal. It is said to contain half a million of people, great part of whom are mahometans of different nations.

Further southward on the same coast is Bombay, an important English settlement, the seat of one of the Company's governments. It is built on a small island, and has strong fortifications, with a naval arsenal. The air is unhealthy, but the advantages for trade have rendered it a large and populous city.

Considerably inland from hence is situated Aurungabad, founded by the emperor Aurengzebe, as the capital of his southern dominions. Poonah, the capital of the western Mahrattas, is an open inland town to the south-west of Bombay. Further in the same direction is Visiapour, the capital of a Mahratta province of that name, in the neighbourhood of the celebrated diamond-mines. To the east of this province is situated that of GOLCONDA, belonging to the Nizam or Soubah of the Deccan. Its capital, the metropolis of the Nizam, is Hydrabad. Proceeding hence to the eastern coast we come to the SIRCARS, a long slip of land possessed by the English, of which the principal town is Masulipatam.

Southward from the Sircars begins the country called the Carnatic, extending along the shore of the eastern sea. It belongs chiefly to a nabob whose capital is Arcot, and who is in close alliance with the English. On the coast are several settlements of European powers. The principal of these at the present time is Madras, belonging, with a territory around it, to the British Indian empire, and the seat of one of its governments. Annexed to it is the strong place of Fort George, which includes a regularly built European town. It has not the advantage of a harbour, of which, indeed, the whole eastern coast of Hindostan southward from the Ganges is nearly destitute, whence all large shipping is obliged to quit it in the season of the monsoons. Further south is Pondicherry, the principal settlement of the French in India, a fine and populous city during the prosperous state of their company. At Tranquebar, in the little kingdom of Tanjore, is a Danish settlement.

On passing cape Comorin westward, the Malabar coast commences. One of the first places that occurs on it is Cochin, situated on a spacious harbour, but of difficult access. It was a Portuguese settlement in the 17th century, when it was taken by the Dutch, in whose hands it remains. Northward is Calicut, the first Indian port visited by the Portuguese, at which time it was the seat of a powerful prince called the Zamorin. It now belongs to the English, as do the other towns on the coast almost as far as Goa. This last is the principal remaining settlement of the Portuguese in India, and has been long

known as a great commercial port, nationally distinguished by its inquisition, as well as by its very numerous monasteries and nunneries. It is seated on an isle in the midst of a fine bay, and has one of the best ports in Hindostan.

The internal country on this side of the peninsula consists in great part of the kingdom of **MYSORE**, formerly possessed by native princes, who were dethroned by the usurpation of **Hyder Ally**, a mahometan soldier of fortune. His son, **Tippoo Sultan**, after a long contest with the British arms, fell in battle; and his capital, **Seringapatam**, with a considerable share of his territory, is now annexed to the British possessions.

It is remarkable that the seasons on the **Malabar** and **Coromandel** coasts are opposite; a circumstance owing to the position of the **Gauts** or ranges of mountains that line each coast. The periodical winds, or monsoons, blow from the north-east from October to April, and from the south-west from May to September. These winds bring rain; and the rainy season takes place on that coast upon which they beat without interruption; while the intervening ridge of hills secures the opposite coast from their influence. Thus, the north-east is the rainy monsoon on the **Coromandel**, and the south-west on the **Malabar** coast. The shifting of the monsoons is attended with unsettled weather on both coasts.

Such is the general view of the natural and political state of **Hindostan**; a country, the wealth of which has at all times attracted the cupidity of strangers, who have never failed in their schemes of conquest or plunder over the effeminate natives. Yet their mass of population, supposed to amount to sixty millions, together with the peculiarity of their institutions, will probably continue to preserve them as one of the great nations of mankind, though oppressed and humiliated, yet incapable of dissolution. The numbers of them who have been trained to military service in the European manner, and of whom the greater part of the troops of the contending powers of Europe in their Indian possessions are composed, might be expected to be the means of freeing them from a foreign yoke, if they were not so much disunited among themselves. Though these native soldiers, called **Sepoys**, are capable of great exertions of

steady courage when led on by European officers, yet they lose all confidence when left to themselves. The genius of the East seems doomed to submit to that of the West ; nor can it be supposed that those who have held so much of India as masters, will ever be content to visit its shores as mere merchants. As the Hindoos never enjoyed freedom, they have not now to lament the evils of servitude ; but they have great reason to wish for an intermission of those internal wars which have never ceased to depopulate their fairest districts, and lay waste the products of their industry.

## CEYLON.

THE island of Ceylon may be regarded as an appendage to Hindostan, from which it is separated by a strait, almost bridged over by a line of shoals and low inlets. It is supposed to have been the Taprobane of the ancients, the farthest limit of their Indian geography, and the Serendib of the Arabians; and is situated nearly between  $5^{\circ} 30'$  and  $9^{\circ} 30'$  N. latitude. It is of an oval form, narrowest at the northern end, and may be reckoned about 260 miles long, by a breadth of 150.

From a flat shore six or eight leagues wide, the country rises all round to the centre, where it is traversed by a ridge of high mountains running north and south. Rivers descend each way from this ridge, of which the largest enters the bay of Trincomalee from the south. Thick forests of lofty growth overspread the internal country, and render the central parts inaccessible except by particular passes. The low lands have a fat soil, fertile in rice and other objects of agriculture. The climate is that of the torrid zone, but tempered by breezes from the sea and the elevation of the mountains. The uncleared and marshy parts are subject to the fatal diseases of the tropics.

Ceylon is a land rich in natural products of every kind. Among its vegetable stores the most celebrated is its cinnamon, the bark of an indigenous tree, but now cultivated in plantations. This fine spice is no where produced in such abundance and perfection as in Ceylon, and it has long constituted its principal article of export. Pepper, cardamoms, and other spices are also native here; and the bread fruit, the betel nut, the sugarpalm, with a great variety of tropical fruits, add to its vegetable riches.

Elephants of distinguished size and goodness are numerous in Ceylon. The capture of them is a public concern, and many are carried over to the neighbouring continent. With game of various kinds, and with carnivorous beasts, its forests abound. Alligators, snakes, and insects swarm in the rivers and marshes, and grow to a formidable bulk. Among the beauties of the feathered creation the flocks of wild peacocks are conspicuous. The following lively picture of an Indian forest by the late Mr. Pennant has a particular reference to Ceylon, though in many of its features it applies to all the tropical countries of the east :

“ An Indian forest is a scene, the most picturesque that can be imagined : the trees seem perfectly animated : the fantastic monkeys give life to the stronger branches ; and the weaker sprays wave over your head, charged with vocal and various-plumed inhabitants. It is an error to say that nature has denied melody to the birds of hot climates, and formed them only to please the eye with their gaudy plumage : Ceylon abounds with birds equal in song to those of Europe, which warble among the leaves of trees, grotesque in their appearance, and often loaden with the most delicious and salubrious fruit. Birds of the richest colours cross the glades, and troops of peacocks complete the charms of the scene, spreading their plumes to a sun that has ample powers to do them justice. The landscape, in many parts of India, corresponds with the beauties of the animate creation : the mountains are lofty, steep, and broken, but clothed with forests, enlivened with cataracts of a grandeur and figure unknown to this part of the globe.”

“ But to give a reverse of this enchanting prospect, which it is impossible to enjoy with suitable tranquillity ; you are harassed in one season with a burning heat, or, in the other, with deluges of rain ; you are tormented with clouds of noxious insects ; you dread the spring of the tiger, or the mortal bite of the naja.”—Indian Zoology.

Ceylon possesses a valuable pearl-fishery in one of its bays, which is frequented by multitudes of divers from different quarters. It is abundant in mineral treasures, among which



are enumerated gold, iron, plumbago, and a variety of precious stones.

The natives of Ceylon were originally known by the name of Cingalese, which appellation is retained by those who live under the dominion of Europeans, while the inhabitants of the central parts, under the rule of the king of Candy, are termed Candians. Between the two some differences prevail derived from the circumstances of their situation, but they agree in characteristics. In manners they resemble the Hindoos, being courteous, polite, and punctilious; but their passions are strong, and they are much addicted to revenge. The Candians display their independent state by a more manly and spirited demeanour, while the Cingalese are more gentle and submissive. Their religion is that of Boodh or Budda, which some suppose to have originated here, and they are much under the dominion of superstition and priestcraft. A considerable share of the population is formed by Malays who have settled here, and who are distinguished by their ferocity, and their mahometanism. Dutch and mongrel Portuguese add to the various residents on the sea-coast.

Ceylon was governed by native princes, till the Portuguese made settlements in the island and subdued various parts of it. The Dutch succeeded, who obtained possession of the coasts, and exercised their usual tyranny over the Cingalese, while the native king of Candy maintained his sovereignty in the centre. From them, during the late war, it passed to the English, who now hold it. They were soon engaged in hostilities with the king of Candy, the result of which hitherto has not been much in their favour. The principal European town is Columbo, a place of great and extremely mixed population, well-built and fortified, and carrying on a considerable trade in the products of the island. The most valuable possession, however, is Trincomalee, a noble harbour on the north-east side of the island, of peculiar consequence to the English trade, as a place of refuge for ships from the coast of Coromandel during the prevalence of the north-east monsoon.

The MALDIVE ISLANDS are a very singular range, situated directly to the west of Ceylon, and to the south-west of cape Comorin. They lie in a line stretching from north to south inclining eastward from the 7th or 8th degree of N. latitude to the 2d or 3d of S. latitude, with a narrow proportional length. They consist of a vast number of islets, most of them mere heaps of sand or coral rock emerging from the water, but many large enough to be inhabited, and covered with cocoa-trees and other tropical vegetables. They are naturally divided into groups separated from one another by channels, each group being an assemblage of islets in a kind of shallow bank, of which the water is so low that at neap-tide persons may wade from one to another. Of these groups, called Atollons, they reckon thirteen; of the intervening channels only four are navigable by large vessels, and they are all dangerous on account of rocks and shoals. The principal island, and residence of the sovereign, is called Malee, whence the whole cluster derives its name, dive signifying island in their language.

The people of the Maldives are numerous, and considerably civilized. They are of an olive complexion and well made. Their language is said to be a dialect of the Cingalese, but Arabic is taught in their schools. In religion they are strict mahometans. The government is an absolute monarchy, administered chiefly by the priests or doctors of the law. The subjects are divided into different classes, one of which is an order of hereditary nobility. The Maldivians are quick and ingenious, proficient in various arts, addicted to commerce, brave, and polite, but extremely licentious in their manners. The higher ranks are richly clothed in silk and cotton, of which various stuffs are manufactured in the islands. Their exports consist in cowrie shells, dried fish, cordage and sails made of the fibres of the cocoa, and other articles of manufacture. The Portuguese had once gained possession of the principal of these islands, but were expelled by the natives.

To the north of the Maldives lies a more scattered and less numerous group called the LACKADIVES, inhabited by a similar people. Ambergris is frequently collected on the shores of the islands in these seas.

## TIBET.

TO the north and north-east of Hindostan, between it and the deserts of Chinese Tatar, lies an extensive country, the geography of which is imperfectly known. Though it neither constitutes a single sovereignty, nor goes by a single appellation, it may, for the sake of geographical division, be regarded as one of the great portions of Asia, and treated of under the general name of Tibet.

Its southern boundary may be considered as that of the northern provinces of Hindostan, from Cashmere to the frontiers of Assam, and thence along the northern border of that kingdom and the Birman empire, to the province of Yunnan in China: thence its eastern limit winds on the edge of other Chinese provinces to the indefinite commencement of the country of the Ekuth Tatars. Its northern and western limits cannot be laid down with any tolerable precision. The southern boundary comes to the 26th or 27th degree of latitude, and the country stretches northward at least as far as the 35th degree. From east to west it may be computed to extend 1300 miles.

This large tract, taken as a whole, is characterized as a high and mountainous country. Its great elevation is indicated as well by the origin which it gives to numerous large rivers which water southern Asia, as by the extraordinary severity of its winter-cold, which, below the 30th degree of latitude, equals that of the Swiss Alps in latitude 46°. Hence the southern parts of it alone are fertile in vegetable products and favourable to the cultivator. In the northern parts bleak rocky hills and arid plains present a general appearance of desolation, and human residence is confined to sheltered vales and hollows.

The long and frequent mountainous ridges are very imperfectly laid down by the few scientific travellers who have visited this country. One alpine chain seems to run along the

frontier of Hindostan, to which another still longer lies parallel northwards, leaving between the two the districts of Siranagur, Napaul, and Bootan. Tibet Proper, which may be reckoned to commence beyond the second chain, is crossed by many ridges, several of which run parallel to one another, north and south, rather declining to the east, separated by vales which give passage to the rivers.

The Ganges has been already mentioned as taking its rise in Tibet, which country, however, it leaves in an early part of its course. The Burrampooter, under the name of Sanpoo, is chiefly a Tibetan river, traversing the country from its north-western side to the confines of Assam, in a course of about a thousand miles. In the eastern side of Tibet streams arise which by their junction form the Irrawady of Pegu, the Thaluayn of the Birman empire, the Maykaung of Cambodia, and the Kiang-hu and Hoang-ho of China, all of them rivers of vast magnitude and length of course. Most of these, in their Tibetan origin, are fierce torrents during the periodical rains of spring and summer in the mountains.

Many lakes, some of considerable extent, occur in the alpine tracts. A very singular one is laid down in the maps near Lassa, having the form of a wide moat, every where surrounding a large central island. Such is the rigour of the climate, even in the southern part of Tibet Proper, that its small lakes are hard frozen to a late period in the spring; and an English traveller had the satisfaction of skating upon one below the 30th degree of latitude.

In Tibet the hills are for the most part naked, and the vegetation in general is scanty, and similar to that of the northern climates. Bootan, on the contrary, though overspread with high and rude mountains, is clad in perpetual verdure. Its forests are tall and luxuriant, containing many of the timber trees of Europe (not, however, the oak); and its vales and declivities are rich in corn fields and orchards of fruit trees. The great plain of Napaul is also a well cultivated tract, supporting a numerous population.

The zoology of these countries is rich and curious. Of domestic animals, sheep are abundant, of a small breed, with soft

wool and excellent flesh. The goats are covered with a very fine internal coating of hair, which is the material of the exquisite Cashmirian shawls. Of the horned cattle of Tibet there is a remarkable species which, from the sound it utters, has been called the Grunting Ox, but which the most accurate describer names the Bushy-tailed Bull of Tibet, or the Yak of Tatar. It is distinguished by the soft hair or wool with which it is entirely clothed, and particularly by its tail, which forms a long flowing train of glossy hair, more profuse than the fullest horse-tail. This appendage is of great use in the east, mounted on a handle, under the name of a chowry, for the purpose of driving away insects, and as an elegant ornament. These cattle are pastured in the coldest parts of Tibet, upon the short herbage of the hills and elevated plains: they afford plenty of rich milk, and are employed as beasts of burden.

The horses in Bootan are of small size, but uncommonly spirited and restive. Wild horses are met with in Tibet. The Musk Antelope is more abundant in the Tibetan wilds than in any other region, and the musk of this country is peculiarly valued. A great variety of animals of chase ranges over the open tracts which extend through so many degrees of latitude, and which afford proper food and harbour for the most dissimilar kinds; but of these a few only have been viewed with the eyes of a naturalist.

The mineral treasures of Tibet are explored only enough to give assurance of their existing in a rich variety. It is known to be productive of gold in great quantity, both in the form of dust obtained from the beds of rivers, and of masses contained in stony matrixes. Quicksilver is found in cinnabarine ores; and there appears to be no deficiency of the inferior metals. The want of fuel is, however, a powerful obstacle to the profitable working of mines. Of the valuable salt called tincal or crude borax, there is an inexhaustible store in a lake in the northern part of Tibet, where it is deposited as a sediment near the borders at a shallow depth. It is thence dug up in solid masses; but such is the cold of this district, that the business can be carried on only in a few months of the year, when the lake is free from ice. Rock-salt abounds in various parts, and

is used for domestic purposes throughout Tibet, Bootan, and Nepal.

The inhabitants of Tibet have a Tatarian cast of features, with a ruddy brown complexion. Their disposition is gentle and amiable, and they have attained a state of considerable civilization. Their religion is a branch of the ancient faith of Boodh, which has one principal object of worship, with many subordinate deities, the offspring of an allegorical mythology. It is widely diffused over Tatar and the countries to the east of the Burrampooter; but its principal seat is Tibet, which is the residence of the Grand Lama, or high-priest of the religion. He is believed by his followers to be rendered immortal by the metempsychosis or transmigration of the soul into a new body; and some late English deputies had an interview with him in the person of a young child, surprisingly trained to sustain his dignified station. Nothing can surpass the reverence with which he is beheld by all who have the honour of approaching him. The Grand Lama is the temporal sovereign of Tibet, which office, of course, is exercised by the priesthood about his person. In Bootan there is a secular prince, who has, however, only a limited authority; and the same, probably, is the case in other provinces. The emperor of China is the protector of this spiritual dominion, as the emperors of Germany formerly were of the popedom. In various other respects the two religions are extremely similar; there being in Tibet a ceremonial ritual for public worship, with solemn accompaniments of music, and a numerous establishment of monastic institutions, occupied by a crowd of monks and a few nuns, who make solemn processions to particular shrines, and are employed like the religious orders of Roman catholic countries.

It is a very remarkable circumstance in Tibetan manners, that a polygamy prevails, the reverse of that which takes place in other countries, several husbands having a wife in common. It is said that the eldest son of a family looks out for a domestic partner, who thenceforth stands in the same relation to all the brothers. If this strange custom be founded, as is asserted, on an extraordinary deficiency of the usual proportion of females, even after a great number of males are disposed of in con-

vents, the laws of nature must here be different from what they are known to be in other countries ; but in all probability these family-marriages take place only in particular orders of society.

The language of Tibet is asserted to be the same with that spoken on the western frontiers of China. They have printed books, chiefly on religious topics. Their monks are regularly educated in letters at colleges for the purpose.

The capital of Tibet is Lassa, a small city built of stone. That of Bootan is Tassisudon : other towns are little known, but seem to be inconsiderable. Private houses are mean, and indicate little opulence in the people. Some of the monasteries are very spacious, and the temples and palaces make a handsome appearance. Of manufactures, the principal articles are shawls and woollen cloths. A trade is carried on with China, in which the exports are gold-dust, precious stones, musk, lamb-skins, and woollens ; the imports are tea and manufactured goods. To Napaul are sent crude borax, rock-salt, and gold-dust, exchanged for silver coin, copper, rice, and cotton cloths : by the same channel some commerce is maintained with Bengal. The population of this extensive country is scanty, and the whole amount is small.

NAPPAUL is properly no dependency on Tibet ; and to the west of it many petty kingdoms equally independent are said to exist. Large towns and numerous villages are mentioned as covering the plain of Napaul, which seems to enjoy a fine soil and climate. In this country are two religious sects : one, a schism from Tibet ; the other the Hindoo. The temples are described as peculiarly elegant, and some of them as truly magnificent. SIRINAGUR, a district further to the west, is governed by its own sovereigns of the Hindoo faith : the country is mountainous and poor, but yields gold and other metals.

A country called LITTLE TIBET is placed in the maps to the north of Cashmere ; but it seems scarcely to be known to European geographers, who, indeed, have much to learn respecting the whole of this part of Asia.

## INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES.

THIS portion of the Asiatic continent, like that to the west of the same river, is distinctly marked out by nature for a separate geographical division, though its limits are not precisely fixed. From its appellation, the Ganges, or, at least, the Burrampooter, which is a twin of that river, should be the boundary between it and the hither India; but that line is now broken by political arrangements; and a ridge of mountains forms the barrier between the Anglo-Hindoo provinces of Chittigong, Tipera, and Silhet, and the opposite eastern countries of Aracan, Cassay, and Cachar. Further northwards the Garrows, and the frontiers of the kingdom of Assam, form the separation from Bengal, Bootan, and Tibet. A winding and artificial boundary then runs along the remainder of the Tibetan frontier, and that of the extensive Chinese province of Yunnan and part of that of Quangsee, till it finally terminates at the gulf of Tonquin. The whole eastern, southern, and western limits as far as Aracan are formed by the sea, which peninsulates this portion of India more completely than it does the western portion. The two Indies lie for the most part parallel; but that which we are now describing runs much further to the south by means of its peninsula of Malacca, which reaches within about a degree of the equator; on the other hand, its northern extremity does not extend beyond the 27th degree of N. latitude.

Taking a view of this large tract as a whole, it appears singularly characterized by the uniformity of long parallel chains of mountains, running north and south with a small declination to the east, and a few great rivers traversing the country in the same direction, and discharging themselves into the ocean on the south. A striking feature is the great Malayan peninsula, projecting from the south-western side, and seem-



ing rather to belong to the group of the large Indian islands, into which it intrudes, than to the continent.

The form and extent of India beyond the Ganges have naturally distributed it into several separate and independent states; nor does it seem at any period to have been nearly united under a single sovereignty. Those which are at present known to exist will be the subject of a few subsequent articles.

## ASSAM.

THE north-westerly district of this division of India is a region watered by the Burrampooter, which divides it into two provinces. It is intersected by other streams tributary to the great river, which render it fertile and pleasant. The northern province is best cultivated and peopled: among its products are various fruits, cocoa-nuts, sugar, pepper, and ginger. Its silk is said to equal that of China; and gold and silver are found in considerable quantities in the sand of its rivers. Assam is governed by a native prince or rajah, who resides at the capital, Ghargon. The people are a stout and hardy race, who have repeatedly repelled the incursions of the Mogul sovereigns. Bramins reside in the country, but their tenets are not generally adopted. The language resembles the vulgar dialect of Bengal.

## THE BIRMAN EMPIRE.

THE names of AVA and PEGU have long been known in Europe ; but that of the Birman empire, in which they are both comprised, has but lately been introduced to the knowledge of the European geographer. It is an extensive dominion, which may be reckoned to contain all the western side of India beyond the Ganges, exclusive of Assam, down to the 9th degree of latitude in the Malayan peninsula. How far it reaches to the east is very uncertain ; but the frontiers of Siam, continually fluctuating on account of the wars between the two countries, are its limits on that side. It may be regarded as the principal sovereignty in this part of India, and as a power of no small account among the Asiatic states.

The face of the country is level, and the soil marshy, in that part where the rivers spread into various branches on approaching the sea : but higher up it is agreeably diversified with hill and dale ; and towards the north are considerable ranges of mountains. One of these separates Aracan from the other parts of the empire ; another follows the boundary of Assam ; and several ridges appear to run parallel to one another southwards from the borders of Yunnan.

The principal river is the Irrawady, which is formed of two main streams that unite near Ava : but which of these it is that has a remote source in Tibet, is not ascertained. The Irrawady enters the sea by numerous mouths in the country of Pegu. Parallel to it on the east is the Sitang, a river of comparatively short course, which seems united with the former by a network of branches. The Thaluayn, which next discharges itself into the sea, if the same with the Nou Kian of Tibet, has a longer course than the Irrawady ; but the upper parts of all these rivers are unexplored.

A tropical country so abundantly watered cannot fail of a rich vegetable produce: accordingly the southern part of this empire is said to be singularly fertile, yielding great crops of rice, sugar, tobacco, cotton, indigo, and all the fruits and esculent vegetables of a hot climate. The tracts in which the rivers flow are fruitful throughout, and the upland plains and valleys produce good wheat and other grains. Lofty forests overspread the country in many parts where it is left in a state of nature. In these the teak-tree grows to great perfection, and affords an inexhaustible material for ship-building.

Of the animals of this country nothing peculiar is mentioned. The horses are said to be small and spirited. Elephants and buffaloes abound in Pegu.

The mineral products are rich; and the plenty of gold is displayed in the profusion with which it is employed to decorate the temples and palaces. Silver often accompanies the gold, and the inferior metals are found in abundance. That precious gem, the true ruby, is almost peculiar to Pegu and some other parts of the empire, and they also yield the sapphire, amethyst, and other precious stones. Amber is dug in large quantities near the Irrawady.

The origin of the inhabitants of these countries is not known. They have many points of resemblance to the Hindoos, but are of a much more lively and spirited character. Their manners are free, and in some respects loose, especially with regard to the women, whom they readily consign to temporary connections with strangers. They are fond of music and poetry, and have a considerable share of literature derived from the Hindoos. Their religion is the sect of Boodh, and their laws are a part of it. Their commentaries on the sacred institutes of Menu are said to be distinguished for perspicuity and good sense.

The establishment of a single empire in this country appears to be of late date. The Birmans, a brave and warlike race, formerly subject to the king of Pegu, made themselves masters of Ava, and obtained the supremacy over the Peguans in the 16th century; which, after a series of wars, they lost about the middle of the 18th, when the last of the Birman kings was

dethroned. Soon after that event, a Birman of low extraction, but of a vigorous character, took up arms against the Peguans, and, by a gradual progress of success, at length established himself in the imperial seat, and was upon the point of conquering the Siamese, when he died, in 1760. One of his descendants is the reigning monarch. The government is despotic, and there are no hereditary offices or dignities. The administration is conducted with great regularity, and the royal will is executed in the remote provinces by means of viceroys. The standing army is small; but every man in the empire is liable to be called out to serve on occasion. There is a navy consisting of a number of large row-boats fitted for war.

The present capital, Ummerapoor, has been founded by the reigning sovereign: it is situated near the centre of the empire, upon a river which flows into the Irrawady. It has a large fort, containing the royal palace, with temples, a hall of council, and public granaries, together making a grand appearance. It is not far from Ava, the ancient capital, which has been left to ruin, the materials of its houses having been transported to the new metropolis. The relics of its palaces and numerous temples, overgrown with bushes, and mouldering in decay, are said to present a most striking image of desolation.

Pegu, the capital of the kingdom of that name, was also abandoned to ruin; but permission has since been given to build a new city on the site, which is about half the extent of the old one. Its sacred edifice, called the Shamadoo, said to have been erected 500 years before the Christian era, is one of the most remarkable structures in the east for size and magnificence, and gives an idea of very remote power and civilization. Rangoon is a modern port of considerable trade and population: it appears to have taken the place of Syrian, an important harbour when possessed by the Portuguese. Numerous towns and villages crown the banks of the Irrawady, which seems to be the centre of the population of the empire. The furthest port on the south is Mergui, opposite to a cluster of small islands.

The Birmans excel in various ornamental arts, particularly in that of gilding, in which they employ the greater part of the

gold which the country yields. They display singular elegance in the construction of their pleasure houses and state barges, according to the oriental taste. Their commerce is chiefly with China, to which they export cotton, ivory, amber, precious stones, and betel-nut, receiving in return wrought silks and velvets, and other manufactured goods. Some European articles and Bengal muslins are brought to their ports by foreign vessels.

## SIAM.

THIS country, which occupies the central part of the peninsula, was better known to Europeans a century ago than it seems to be at present. It was then considered as a rich and potent kingdom, and great efforts were made by Europeans, especially by the French, to establish an interest in it. The recent superiority of the Birman empire has depressed the Siamese monarchy, as well as contracted its territories. Still, however, it maintains its rank as an independent state, of no small local consequence. Its present boundaries admit of no accurate specification. A ridge of mountains to the west seems naturally to separate it from Pegu; and another to the east, from Laos and Cambodia. On the south it is bounded by the sea, there called the gulf of Siam; but how far it descends on the Malayan peninsula is unknown. Northerly its limits are lost in wild and disputed regions. They never seem to have reached the Chinese border, and probably at present do not extend to half the distance.

The main part of Siam has been characterized as a wide vale between two ridges of mountains. Through this vale flows the Meinam, a great river, whose name in the vernacular tongue signifies the mother of waters; and which, by its annual inundations, is to Siam the same source of fertility that the Nile is to Egypt. Its origin is thought to be in the mountains on the frontier of Yunnan; but by means of a communicating branch

with the great Cambodian river Maykaung, it may be traced to the centre of Tibet. It is, however, small and scanty on its entrance into the territory of Siam, but afterwards becomes deep, wide, and rapid.

From the climate of this country winter is almost excluded, although the months of December and January are cooled by north winds from the distant snowy mountains of Tibet. The summers are moist, and their heat is adequate to the growth of every tropical production in the greatest luxuriance and abundance. The soil of all the lower and inundated part of the country is a rich deposition of vegetable mould of extraordinary fertility. Higher in the country, towards the mountains, the land is parched, and comparatively steril ; but the sides of the hills are productive of grain, and stately forests overspread much of the uncultivated tracts. The principal farinaceous article is rice, which grows in exuberant crops in the inundated lands, and is sometimes reaped into boats. Other esculent vegetables abound where a moderate degree of industry is employed in their culture.

Of wild animals, both of game and prey, there are numerous species. The domesticated are chiefly elephants and buffaloes. Of the former, none throughout the east are so much esteemed as the Siamese for sagacity and beauty. Sometimes a white variety is met with, and such individuals are highly valued and regarded as a kind of sacred animal. The property of two white elephants was the occasion of a war between Siam and Pegu, which, after prodigious slaughter, ended in making the former tributary. The woods are enlivened with numerous tribes of monkeys ; and the banks of the river are at certain seasons illuminated with swarms of fire-flies, which appear like dancing meteors.

In minerals Siam has been accounted rich ; but at the time when it was much frequented by the French, no mines of gold or silver were found worth the working, though the profusion of these metals employed about the temples indicated former abundance. Of the inferior metals, tin and lead were extracted in the greatest quantity. Copper, iron, and zinc are also known products of its mines.

The Siamese are of a dark hue, with features of the Tatarian or Chinese cast. The men are extremely indolent, and leave most laborious occupations to the women. They are fond of amusements and public spectacles, and excel in a species of dramatic exhibitions.

The language is peculiar, and in writing they employ an alphabet of their own. Literature is considerably cultivated. The youth are commonly educated in the convents of their monks, where they are taught to read, write, and cast accounts.

The religion resembles that of the Hindoos, one of its leading doctrines being that of the transmigration of souls. The principal object of their adoration, named Sommona Codom, is supposed to be the same with Boodh. They have a sacred language, in which their scriptures are written. The ecclesiastical establishment consists of a high-priest, inferior priests, and a numerous body of monks, named Talapoins.

The government is an absolute despotism, attended with all the eastern adoration of the sovereign, whose administration is in general extremely severe: the laws are rigorous, and the punishments cruel. The present state of the revenue and military force is little known. The former was in great part derived from the commerce of the country, which the king, by a narrow policy, carried on with foreign nations upon his own account. That the power of Siam has declined, is evident from its present inferiority to the Birman empire.

The private buildings of the Siamese are mean, constructed chiefly with bamboos, and erected upon pillars by way of security against the inundations. Even the palaces are of a simple and humble architecture, and the temples are the only edifices which can pretend to a degree of magnificence. The people are not void of ingenuity, but their exertions are cramped by the despotism of the government, which annually requires half a year's service from every man on the king's account. They excel in some ornamental manufactures, such as works in gold and silver, and painting in miniature.

The capital of this country, which the Europeans have also called Siam, is properly named Yuthin. It is situated in an island of the Meinam, and occupies a large space, but loosely

filled. Baknok, near the mouth of the same river, is the principal sea-port. Of other towns, only the names are now known, and they are probably of small importance. The products of Siam which are objects of commerce are grain, cotton, deer-skins, gum-benzoin, sandal and other woods, metals, and precious stones.

## MALACCA.

THIS large peninsula, running out in a south-eastern direction from the confines of Siam and of the Birman empire, has no precise boundary on the part where it adheres to the continent, but may be reckoned to commence about the tenth degree of N. latitude, whence it is continued to between the first and second degree. Its mean breadth may be estimated at 150 miles. A ridge of hills runs down the middle of its length, like the Apennines of Italy, from which the country declines each way to the coast. The inland parts are said to remain in a state of nature, overgrown with forests and the other luxuriant vegetation of a tropical country. It gives harbour to tigers, elephants, wild boars, monkeys, and, as travellers affirm, to wild men, who are, perhaps, a breed of large apes. Agriculture is chiefly employed in the growth of rice : pepper and other spices, valuable gums and woods, are also among its products. Malacca is noted through the east for its tin mines : and gold is said to be found in the sand of its streams.

The inhabitants of the internal country, who are rude and uncivilized, seem to be an indigenous race ; but those of the coast are probably of foreign origin, as may be inferred from the radical differences between them and the neighbouring people. These Malays, as they are called, are mostly mahometans, and possess the daring courage and ferocity which characterize some of the Moorish tribes. They are below the middle size, with slender limbs, but well shaped and agile, of a tawny complexion, with long shining black hair. Their dress is succinct, and close-



ly fitted to the shape. Like the beasts of prey of their torrid region, they are always upon the watch to assuage their thirst of blood and pillage, and are the dread of all the nations navigating on their coasts. It is common for the crews of their small barks, by treachery or a sudden attack, to board an European ship, and with their dreadful poniards, with which they are constantly armed, to massacre all the mariners on deck, and take possession of the vessel. When engaged as sailors in foreign ships they are never to be trusted ; and when kept as domestic slaves, the least affront is capable of exciting them to the most desperate vengeance. They are sufficiently obedient to superiors of their own nation, and when regularly disciplined under native officers they make brave and faithful soldiers.

It is singular that, in a tropical country of the east, a form of civil society should prevail so similar to that feudal system which formerly existed in most of the countries of Europe. In Malacca there is a king or sultan, who is supreme over a body of potent vassals, or nobles, termed Orankays, and who, in turn, have vassals inferior to themselves. The nobles act in great measure as independent, and sell their arms to those who pay best. The lowest class of all is in a state of absolute servitude. This kind of aristocratical independence has probably been the cause that the Malays have always been prompt to engage in active enterprises. Their colonies have peopled the shores of all the great surrounding islands, as Sumatra, Java, Borneo, Celebes, the Moluccas, and Philippines ; and there was a time when their vessels covered all the Indian seas. The Malayan language, which, in contrast to the character of the people, is the softest and most melodious dialect of the east, is widely diffused through that part of the world, and serves the purpose of general communication.

The peninsula was formerly divided into two kingdoms, that of Patani in the north, and of Jor or Johor in the south. The Portuguese were the first European discoverers of this country, of which they made themselves masters. They held the city of Malacca, which they rendered a great mart for trade, till they were dispossessed in 1641 by the Dutch. Of the present state of this settlement, and of the other Malayan towns, little is known.

## LAOS AND CAMBODIA.

BEYOND the range of mountains which forms the eastern boundary of Siam, another wide plain or valley appears, running longitudinally from the border of China to the Indian ocean, and consisting of the bed of a great river, and a space on each side, extending to other mountainous ridges. Of this tract, the upper or northern portion is the kingdom of Laos, otherwise Layn-Sayn-Shan; the lower or southern is Cambodia, otherwise Yoodra-Shan. The river pervading both is the Maykaung, before mentioned as having a communication with the river of Siam, and deriving its source from a great distance, in the heart of Tibet.

LAOS, from its internal situation, is the least known of the two countries. It is represented as having been a powerful state, surrounded by forests and deserts, fertile in its soil in the cultivated part, which, doubtless, is that bordering on the river, and abundant in rice. It produces the best benzoin and gum-lac, also tea, cotton, and dying woods. Among its commodities are the finest musk, pearls, and precious stones, gold, silver, and other metals. The people resemble in person the southern Chinese; but their religion and manners are similar to those of Siam. They trade both with the Chinese and the Cambodians. The name of their capital is Mohang Leng or Laung, a place of considerable extent, situated on the banks of the great river. Another town is placed in the maps lower down, called Sandepora. The navigation of the river is obstructed by rocks and cataracts. Of the government and present state of Laos nothing seems to be known.

CAMBODIA, though more frequented on account of its sea-coast, is likewise almost an unknown region. The name of the

Japanese river given to the Maykaung near its mouth, indicates its having been much visited by that nation ; and Chinese and Malays together with Japanese are said to have settled in the country. The products in general are those of the other Indian tropical countries, with the addition of a peculiar gum of a fine yellow colour, called, from the name of the country, gamboge. This is valuable as a colouring drug, and is likewise a powerful drastic medicine. The river is so impeded with sand-banks that it affords no good harbour at its mouth. The capital, named Cambodia, is at a distance up its stream : it is an inconsiderable place, and the whole population is asserted to be scanty.

### SIAMPA.

EASTWARD from Cambodia, on the sea-coast, is a small maritime tract called Siampa, having to the north of it a ridge of hills separating it from the former country. It is represented as a kingdom tributary to Cochin-china, inhabited by a stout and vigorous race, who frequent the sea in well-built vessels, and employ themselves much in fishing. Their products are cotton, indigo, and an inferior kind of silk. The coast is indented with numerous bays convenient for shipping.

## COCHIN-CHINA AND TUNQUIN.

THE whole remainder of India beyond the Ganges consists of a long range of land, forming the eastern sea-coast, and bounded internally by a chain of mountains separating it from Cambodia and Laos. Of this tract, the southern and narrower part is called Cochin-china ; the northern, which spreads into a greater breadth, is Tunquin, or Tonquin.

COCHIN-CHINA is a rich and fertile district, productive of all the esculent vegetables of that part of the world, which are attentively cultivated. Sugar is made in large quantities, and well refined ; and its low price is a proof how much cheaper is the labour of industrious natives, than that of purchased and imported slaves. The domestic animals are, small but active horses, asses and mules, and goats in great numbers. The woods abound with tigers, elephants, monkeys, and other natives of the Indian forests. The edible birds-nests, so much valued in China, are brought principally from this country. The streams afford gold in dust, and mines of gold and silver are wrought.

The people of Cochin-china are considerably civilized, and the superior ranks emulate the Chinese in politeness. They are clothed in silk and cotton, and their long loose garments indicate an oriental softness and effeminacy of manners. The people in the towns and on the coast are supposed to be of Chinese extraction. The houses are chiefly slight buildings of bamboo thatched with straw, and placed in groves of oranges, limes, plantains, or cocoas. The earthen-ware manufactured in this country is very neat ; and there are skilful workmen in iron. The internal range of mountains is possessed by an aboriginal tribe of savages. The country is regularly governed, and is divided into provinces. Its capital, Hue-fo, is stated to be a

considerable town, with a numerous and well-armed garrison. In its neighbourhood is a fine harbour called Turon, formed by an inlet of the sea.

TUNQUIN, divided from the former only by a small river, is said to be at present incorporated with it by conquest. Its breadth admits of the course of numerous streams springing from the mountains of Yunnan. Its climate unites the Indian with the Chinese products.

The manners and appearances of the people are similar to those of their neighbours of China, but with an inferior degree of civilization. The capital, Kesho, is said to possess a considerable population.

## CHINA.

**IF** the Russian empire comprehend the largest tract of land on the globe under a single dominion, that of China, beyond all question, unites under one sceptre the greatest number of human beings. It likewise stands more apart than any other from the rest of the civilized world in situation, language laws and manners, in which respects it may be regarded almost as a world within itself. Justly, therefore, has it been an object of great interest to European curiosity, though its vast extent, and the jealousy with which all foreigners are looked upon in it, have much obstructed that accurate research into its natural and political circumstances which the purposes of science demand.

China Proper, exclusively of Chinese Tatar, extends from the 21st to the 41st degree of N. latitude. Its extreme breadth is not much inferior; and the general rotundity of its form renders it a compact mass of territory. In English measure it may be stated at 1300 miles by 1000. Its boundary on the east and part of the south is the ocean: on the remainder of the south it touches upon Tunquin, Laos, and the Birman empire. The western limit is formed by a part of the latter territory, the country of Tibet, and that of the Eluth Tatars; the line of separation running indistinctly among mountains and rivers. To the north it has the great desert of Shamo and other parts of Chinese Tatar beyond the Great Wall, the stupendous artificial barrier of the empire on this side.

This ample space is marked out by nature for a distinct whole, chiefly by the range of sea-coast, which swells out semi-circularly without any considerable break from the borders of Tunquin to the upper extremity of the Yellow sea between China and the peninsula of Corea. On the land side there appear no striking features to discriminate the Chinese territory

from the circumjacent countries, unless it be some of the naked deserts on the north.

The climate, soil and surface, within so wide a compass, must necessarily vary so much that they can scarcely be spoken of in general terms. As to the former, the space of twenty degrees from the tropic through the southern part of the temperate zone must, in this quarter of the world, give all the variations from extreme heat to rigorous winter-cold: accordingly, whilst at Canton Europeans suffer under the inconveniences attending a tropical sun, those who have spent the winter at Peking have complained of severities of frost to which few have been accustomed at home in more northern latitudes. The proximity of that part of the empire to the elevated mid region of Asia and the Tatarian wilds, is the cause of this unusual cold under the 40th degree of latitude.

In the face of country many level and low tracts occur, watered by numerous rivers, and cut through by canals; yet ranges of mountains are frequent, and large spaces are occupied by dry and barren deserts. The mountains of China have not been traced with geographical accuracy. As far as the maps are to be trusted, they seem to be disposed in interrupted parallel ridges across the country, no large extent of which is destitute of them. The province of Yunnan, with others which border it on the north and east, appear to be most encumbered with mountains, and it is said that in these parts cultivation is much impeded by them. Rough mountainous tracts lie to the north of Canton, the difficult passage over which has been feelingly described by travellers, who have taken them in their way to the imperial court. From the Chinese landscapes we derive ideas of singularly abrupt and grotesque forms of mountains, in which naked and craggy rocks seem piled upon each other, overhanging deep chasms and dreadful precipices.

Of the rivers of China two are pre-eminent for length of course. The Hoang-ho, called also, from the quantity of mud with which its waters are loaded, the Yellow river, has its origin in two lakes in that part of Tataria which is adjacent to the Kokonor: thence, in a very winding course, it reaches the northern frontier of China, where it turns northward into Chi.

nese Tatory as far as the 42d degree of latitude : thence it returns with a great bend southwards ; and finally, flowing due east, it reaches the ocean about the 34th degree of latitude. Its breadth and depth are not very considerable, but the velocity of its current is at the rate of seven or eight miles an hour ; a proof of the great height from which it takes its source. Its whole course is estimated at 1800, or even 2150 English miles.

The other great river is the Kiang-ku. Its head is traced to the same Tatarian ridge which produces the former, but further to the west. It flows first to the south, in which direction it reaches as low as the 26th degree of latitude : thence it winds across the middle of China in a north-eastern direction, and, after passing the great city of Nanking, enters the sea about 100 miles to the south of the Hoang-ho. Its course somewhat exceeds that of the former ; and both of them in this respect are unrivalled by any known rivers on the globe, unless it be that of the Amazons in South America. To these main streams several others of considerable size are tributary, and many more take a separate course to the sea.

There are several large lakes in China : as that of Tongting-hou, near the centre ; of Poyang-hou, lying to the east of the former ; of Tai-hou, near the sea south of Nanking ; and of Hongtse-hou, to the north of that city. These lakes receive several considerable rivers, and are well stored with fish, the great support of the surrounding inhabitants.

The products of nature in such a vast empire cannot fail of being extremely diversified ; but science has had too few opportunities for research into its recesses to afford adequate information on this head. Those Europeans who have been indulged with the greatest facilities of exploring the different provinces of China have been religious missionaries, less acquainted with natural history than with almost any other branch of knowledge ; and better informed persons have either travelled under guard in the train of an ambassador, or have been obliged to content themselves with short and stolen excursions in the fields round Canton. The vegetable kingdom, however, is known to afford a great variety of useful and curious plants,



wild or cultured; some of which have been introduced into our gardens. The great farinaceous article here, as in other eastern countries, is rice, which is raised chiefly in the southern and lower parts of the empire, though there are varieties of it adapted to different soils and situations. The quantities of this grain conveyed by the canals and rivers to Peking, on the emperor's account, are immense. Other kinds of grain, and a great variety of esculent vegetables, are raised in appropriate soils; and in no part of the world is the earth, by the force of cultivation, made to produce more abundant and unremitting supplies for the wants of man.

One vegetable product of China has now become almost a necessary of life in the remote regions of Europe, especially in England, into which it is imported in prodigious quantities: this is the herb called tea, the leaf of a shrub, of which the two principal species, green and bohea, are natives of the hilly and uncultured parts of China. The use of tea is derived from the Chinese themselves, with whom it is an universal article of diet, from the peasant to the emperor. Tobacco, cotton, hemp, medicinal and dying drugs, and a variety of plants useful in the arts, are natural or cultivated products of this country. Among the latter may be enumerated two species of the mulberry; one for the feeding of silkworms on its leaves, the other for the paper and cloth made of its bark: and the bamboo, the light and strong stems of which are the most common material for slight building and machinery.

Of the animals there are few which are not common to other eastern countries. Some very extraordinary figures have, indeed, been given of creatures unlike any to be met with elsewhere; but there is reason to believe that they are either the creations of fancy, or the caricatures of inaccurate draughtsmen. The domestic animals are those usually reared, and appear to be neither in great abundance, nor of choice breeds. Swine, indeed, may be excepted, of which the small black Chinese kind has been imported to other countries for its excellence. The horses are generally indifferent: Camels of a small kind, with two bunches, are not uncommon as beasts of burden; and buffaloes are often used for draught and carriage.

No species of animal is rejected as food by the Chinese, and dogs and monkeys are frequently seen at the shambles. Aquatic birds, especially ducks, are reared in great numbers on account of the easy maintenance they receive on the canals and rivers. Of wild birds and insects there is a splendid variety, which might greatly enrich the naturalist's catalogue.

All kinds of metals are found in China; but mining seems to be little encouraged, through the exclusive preference given to agricultural labours. Mines of silver are said to be common; yet that metal bears more than its European proportion of value in the Chinese market. Gold is chiefly extracted from the depositions of rivers, and is little used except in gilding and ornament. Tutepag, a natural combination of iron and zinc, is one of the peculiar products of China; and so is a species of white copper, called petong. Fossil coal abounds in some parts, especially in the vicinity of Pekin: it is of a very sulphureous quality, and is usually pounded with water and dried in cakes before burning. Many stones and earths useful for various purposes are found in different parts of the empire: among these some of the most remarkable are the fine clays and other earths called kaolin and petuntse, which are the materials of porcelain.

The inhabitants of China appear to be an aboriginal race; indeed, such an immense population, with so many distinctive marks, cannot with probability be referred to a foreign source. Their features are peculiar, and little resemble those of the other oriental nations, the Tatars excepted. An olive complexion, more or less dark according to the latitude, black long hair, a square face, with broad forehead, small nose, and pointed chin, very narrow eyes obliquely declining towards the inner angles, are their characteristics. The expression of their countenance is generally mild, and sufficiently intelligent. Long civilization and habits of submission have formed them to an artificial and ceremonious politeness, and a calm acquiescing demeanour, which almost suppress the natural play of the passions, and the manifestations of diversity of temper. The great indolence of the higher ranks seems to denote that the industry of the lower is merely the offspring of necessity. To

that necessity, arising from a superabundant population, may also be ascribed the frugality of the people, with their proficiency in all the arts of gain, as well lawful as fraudulent. Their ingenuity must formerly have been inventive, since it has led them to extraordinary perfection in many manufactures and mechanical contrivances: but in modern times it seems to have been solely imitative; and not a single token of the progress of the human mind can be discerned throughout this vast empire. The present Chinese appear to be a race fashioned by custom and discipline, just as domestic animals may be trained to perform certain services without possessing any power of spontaneous improvement. Bigotedly attached to every thing of their own, they refuse to adopt the inventions of other countries, though of the most obvious utility; and in the pride of ignorance treat with contempt or indifference every opportunity for information.

The history of China goes back to a very remote period; and, indeed, the nation bears every mark of high antiquity. Civil wars, rebellions, and revolutions occupy its pages, as they do those of all other histories; and during several periods the empire was in a divided state, composed of the separate monarchies of the north and the south. The Mandshur Tatars, to the north of China, by their superior courage and ferocity, often influenced the succession to the throne, and occupied the northern provinces. At length, being invited for the purpose of expelling an usurper who had dethroned the lawful prince, they seized the government in the 17th century, and established a Tatar dynasty, which now reigns. The cowardly Chinese suffered prodigious calamities during the conquest: but, in fine, the weight of population and civilization preponderated, and the victors submitted to the laws and customs of the vanquished, and were incorporated with the general mass.

The government of China is called patriarchal; that is, the emperor stands in the same relation of absolute and revered master to the whole nation, that the head of a family does to all the members of it; and in no country is the paternal authority carried to such a height. This despotism of the sovereign is, however, mitigated by the force of laws and customs, and the

interposition of councils ; and, in fact, the Chinese emperors of the present dynasty have governed with more justice and moderation than most other possessors of absolute power. The public business is conducted by different classes of ministers, called mandarins by the Europeans, proceeding in regular gradation from the magistrates of a village to the highest officers of state, and all trained in a long course of study for the duties of their station ; so that in China knowledge may be said to be the ruling principle of the state. But this knowledge consists for the most part in acquaintance with an abundance of trifling ceremonials and arbitrary rules of conduct founded on precedent, and has in it nothing of the enlightened policy of Europe. There is no country in the world in which every action in public and private life is so much governed by positive regulations, or in which so little is left to the freedom or discretion of individuals. Hence results a wonderful appearance of order and tranquillity ; but it is at the expense of every thing manly or dignified. The practice of servile submission, and the liability of all ranks to corporal punishment and dishonour, have destroyed all feeling of elevation of character ; hence mean fraud and corruption pervade every class in society and every department of government. The leading policy of the Chinese court consists in suspicious wariness in treating with all foreign powers, and vigilant precaution against domestic innovation of any kind, especially such as might arise from the communication of the subjects of the empire with strangers.

The prevalent religion of China is the sect of Fo, supposed to have been introduced from Hindostan, and containing the doctrine of the metempsychosis, with a plurality of subordinate deities. Its priests are called bonzes, and live in monasteries. Temples or shrines are very numerous in the empire ; and sacrifices or oblations to the idols in them, as well as to domestic idols, are the principal religious rites. The imperial family, from their Tatarian origin, have derived a great veneration for the Grand Lama of Tibet. Other sects likewise exist in the empire ; and there are many of the higher rank, or literati, who have adopted a system of epicurism or atheism. The doctrine of Confucius, the revered sage of China, is purely

moral. On the whole, it can scarcely be said that there is any proper national religion in China, though there are a few public festivals in which ceremonies of a religious nature are practised. Deceased parents are the objects of a certain worship ; and the emperor, as the general parent, is treated with a species of adoration : every thing besides seems left to the choice of individuals, who, however, adopt all the superstitions of their ancestors.

Polygamy is permitted in China, as it is in all the eastern countries, though none but the opulent can indulge themselves in the practice. The women are held in a state of the greatest subjection and inferiority, being mere objects of purchase, and kept in domestic confinement and menial services. A very singular custom, which is supposed to have originated in a scheme for keeping the females at home, is that of swathing their feet in bandages from infancy, so as to prevent their growth to any proportionate size. Though this is a real deformity, and entirely destroys all ease and grace of motion, it has come by habit to be regarded as an essential part of female beauty, and only the lowest classes have feet of the natural size.

The peculiarity of the language of China must ever prove a barrier against a free commerce of literature and conversation with foreigners. It bears no analogy with any other known tongue, and is extremely difficult to learn and to pronounce. The words are all monosyllabic, and the distinct sounds are few ; but by some slight variation of tone or accent, a number of different senses is annexed to each. In writing there are separate characters for every word ; which renders it the study of almost a life to read perfectly. Education, however, to a certain degree, is much attended to, and men of letters are singularly respected. Books are common, printed from blocks, after the manner of wooden cuts, the nature of their writing precluding the use of moveable types. The literature of China is multifarious, but of a kind that would suit the taste of no other nation. True science has made a small progress. In astronomy, which, from a very remote period has been a favourite pursuit, the Chinese were found to be very deficient

by the European mathematicians; and it is to this day made subservient to all the follies and delusions of judicial astrology. Their regular physicians are ignorant of the structure and functions of the human body, and are mere empirical pretenders. In every department a grave exterior stands in the place of knowledge and capacity.

The population of this country has been very variously estimated; and notwithstanding the boasted accuracy and minuteness with which all returns to government are said to be made, it is probable that there are no correct documents on this head. All travellers, however, agree in the prodigious populousness of the great cities and towns, and the vast numbers of people that occur both on the land and water in the track of the principal roads and canals. At the same time it is certain that in many of the provinces there are large tracts either wholly desolate or thinly peopled. In a schedule communicated to the late English embassy by a mandarin, the population is raised far beyond any former estimate, to the amazing amount of 333 millions; but the particulars are given in such round numbers as to preclude any pretence to exactness, and there is much reason to suspect a designed exaggeration. Half that sum would come nearer to the statement of the Roman catholic missionaries who have resided the longest in the country, and have had the best means of information. The public revenue, though small in proportion to the population, is very considerable, regard being had to the cheapness of labour and provisions. The military establishment is ample, as soldiers are employed not only for defence against enemies, but as instruments of police. Their appointment and discipline, however, appear very contemptible in the eyes of an European; and few nations bear a less martial character.

The employment of a great proportion of the people is agricultural; and nothing can exceed the industry and ingenuity displayed in tilling and manuring the ground, forming terraces on the steep declivities of hills to afford a station for plants, raising water from rivers and lakes for the purpose of irrigation, and accommodating the different objects of culture to the nature of different soils and situations. A wise policy has attach-

ed a kind of dignity to the agricultural art, supported by an annual ceremony, in which the emperor, surrounded by his court, himself guides the plough over a piece of land. Nothing in this country is lost or neglected: the wants occasioned by a superabundant population cause an unremitting attention to the production of the necessities of life, and every thing that can create or serve for food is collected with the utmost assiduity. No scruples exist in China relative to the use of any animal or vegetable species of aliment; and articles that would be rejected with loathing in almost any other country are here a part of common diet. Yet famines, to the destruction of great numbers of people, are not unfrequent; probably in consequence of the poverty of the actual cultivators of the land, and the practice of storing in granaries, in the capital and other distant cities, the principal product of the harvests. The permitted exposure of infants is a proof of the hard necessity to which the mass of society is reduced, and which has likewise occasioned a general apathy, and indifference to the preservation of human life. It is a remarkable circumstance in China, that multitudes of people spend their whole lives upon the water, living in barks, either occupied in carrying goods, or in fishing and fowling, which arts they practise for a livelihood, with many ingenious contrivances.

Numerous manufactures exist in different parts of this empire, by which great numbers of people are maintained, though the low price of labour allows them only a bare subsistence. The Chinese in general being well clothed, a great source of employment is the preparation and manufacture of articles of apparel, as silk, cotton, hemp, wool, and leather. Paper, both for writing and other uses, is an article of prodigious demand, and their skill in making it of all qualities and thicknesses is unrivalled. But of all their fabrics none has been so much admired abroad as the fine pottery called porcelain, vulgarly china. Either from the possession of peculiar materials, or from extraordinary skill and care in their preparation, they long ago attained a perfection in this manufacture, which the most ingenious and scientific nations of Europe have not been able entirely to equal. This perfection, indeed, has

consisted rather in the fineness of grain and purity of colour, than in elegance of form and taste in decoration. The Chinese likewise excel in ingenious toys and little pieces of mechanism, and in fire-works. They have a remarkable talent of imitating any piece of workmanship that is put into their hands, but have little invention for the more elaborate and complicated works of art.

The commerce of this empire is chiefly internal, from one province to another; and this communication is facilitated by a very grand and extensive system of water-carriage, both by natural streams and canals. The imperial canal runs north and south for a vast length; and by its means, and the connected rivers, persons and goods may be conveyed almost from Canton to Peking. Each province likewise has its own canals branching out in various directions, and connecting the several districts. These are works of prodigious labour and considerable art; yet the contrivances are rude and awkward in comparison with those of European engineers, and much is left to be done by mere strength of hand.

The private buildings of the Chinese are generally low and mean in their appearance, and made of very slight materials; nor can the public edifices boast of the magnificence displayed in some other parts of the east; still less of the architectural beauty and symmetry of those of Europe. Heavy tiled roofs turned up at the corners, and raised one above another, are characteristic of Chinese architecture. Gay colours and varnish are not spared, and the effect is often brilliant. The pavilions and pleasure-houses are light, and not inelegant; and neatness generally prevails both in the exterior and interior of buildings. The cities are diversified by high edifices, called pagodas by the Europeans, consisting of a series of diminishing turrets; and also by erections usually called triumphal arches, but which are memorial monuments of distinguished virtue or utility. These are the only objects that usually appear above the high walls with which the cities are inclosed. The principal high roads are straight, wide, and paved in the middle with flat stones: distances are regularly marked, and post-houses are established at short intervals. No heavy carriages are to be met with;



and men are very much employed as porters for goods and persons.

It seems a singular deviation from the artificial taste of the Chinese in other things, that in laying out their gardens they adopt that plan of imitating wild and uncultured nature which, in Europe characterizes the English. In China, however, it is carried to the limits of the grotesque and extravagant, and often bears the stamp of art no less than the most formal distribution. Some of the features, however, particularly the plantations of trees, and the piles of rock-work overgrown with plants proper to the situation, are bold and striking.

The cities of China are divided into those of the first, second, and third class, and even the first of these is numerous. As few of them are frequented by strangers, it will be useless to give a list of uncouth names. Peking, the capital, is situated almost at the northern extremity of China, in a climate which produces a rigorous winter-cold, though under the 40th degree of latitude. It is of a vast compass, including a Tatar and a Chinese city, together with the imperial court with all its buildings. The crowded streets display an immense population, which was represented to the English embassy as amounting to three millions. The houses are, indeed, chiefly of one story, but the inhabitants of the common class are very closely lodged. The streets are not paved, and only some of the principal are broad. Nothing of magnificence is seen in the private habitations, and even the palace is rather a vast assemblage of detached and simple buildings, than a striking piece of architecture. The name Peking signifies the Northern Court, and this city has been made the imperial residence since the accession of a Tatar dynasty.

Nankin, or the Southern Court, was the capital under the Chinese sovereigns, and is still reckoned the largest city in the empire, though it suffered greatly in the Tatar invasion. It is advantageously situated on the great river Kiang-hu, and has an extensive commerce. A high pagoda encrusted with porcelain is its principal curiosity. Canton, in the south, is the sole port to which European ships are admitted. It is very populous, and carries on a great foreign trade, especially with the

English. The Chinese government, indeed, affects great indifference with respect to all intercourse with foreign nations, and treats visitors with illiberal suspicion. It has, however, suffered the Portuguese to form a settlement on the isle of Macao, opposite Canton; but they who reside in it are debarred from communication with the continent. The principal commodities exported from Canton are silk, porcelain, and especially tea, of which eighteen millions of pounds are said to be annually sent to Europe. Their imports are woollens, stuffs, lead, tin, furs, clocks and watches, and some other articles of manufacture.

Although the laws of China are unfavourable to schemes of foreign commerce, and forbid emigration, yet the natives have a genius for trade, and, from the difficulty of subsistence at home, are readily induced to settle in other parts. Many of the neighbouring Indian islands and ports on the continent are frequented by them, and become their residence. Their larger ships, called junks, are indeed from their construction ill fitted to encounter a rough sea, and numbers of them are annually lost off the coast. It lately happened that a Chinese who had begun to build a ship on the European model, was commanded to desist; such was either the absurd attachment of the government to old customs, or its fixed determination to discourage distant voyages in its subjects.

The most remarkable antiquity of China is its Great Wall, erected at a remote period as a barrier against the incursions of the northern Tatars. It is a stupendous work, of the computed length of 1500 miles, traversing mountains and valleys, and crowned with towers at short intervals. It forms the boundary of some of the northern provinces, and excites high admiration as an effort of human labour and contrivance; but does little honour either to the courage or the policy of the Chinese. As a defence it has always proved totally inadequate. Now that the neighbouring Tatars are under subjection to Chinese emperors of their own race, the fear of invasion has subsided, and the wall is suffered to go to ruin, though military posts are still stationed at the grand entrances.

There are many islands in the Chinese sea, two or three of which are entitled to particular notice.

HAINAN lies in the gulf of Tunquin, to the south of the province of Quang-tong, below the 20th degree of N. latitude. It is about 180 miles in length, and 120 in breadth. The southern and eastern parts of it are very mountainous, and the only side fitted for cultivation is the northern, which produces plentiful crops of rice, together with sugar-cane, cotton, tobacco, and indigo. The mountains are overgrown with forests, which yield several woods esteemed both for their beauty and their fragrance; and they are the resort of game of all kinds, and of a variety of beautiful birds. Great quantities of gold have been procured from mines in the centre of the island, and employed as a medium of traffic with China. The natives are partly a savage race, living in the uncultivated districts, and making perpetual incursions for pillage, and partly settlers in the villages, tributary to China, and in the service of the Chinese who possess lands in the island.

TAIWAN, called by Europeans FORMOSA, is situated on the north-east of China, at no great distance from the coast of the province of Fokien, to which it now appertains. It is upwards of 200 miles from north to south, but of a narrow breadth. A chain of mountains divides it lengthwise into an eastern and western portion, of which the latter only is settled and possessed by the Chinese, while the eastern is left to the original inhabitants. These are represented as being nearly in a state of nature, but of a mild and peaceable disposition when unmolested. The Dutch had formerly a settlement on this island, which they have now abandoned. The Chinese did not take possession of it till the end of the 17th century. Taiwan is a very desirable country, with a pure air and a fertile soil, productive of corn, rice, and all the usual objects of culture in those latitudes. The level parts are watered by numerous streams descending from the mountains, and are laid out in regular plantations. There are no animals of prey in this island, and few of game, excepting stags and monkeys. The capital, Taiwan-fu, is a

populous city, built in the Chinese style, and defended by a numerous garrison. It has a good port, but of difficult entrance. The islanders under the Chinese dominion live in towns and villages of their own, and pay tribute.

To the north-east of Taiwan, and south of Japan, lies a group of islands named the LEOO-KEOO, tributary to China. The principal of these, particularly distinguished by that name, is about a degree in length, and well peopled. The people are gay, affable, and civilized; they speak a language of their own, but in writing use the Japanese characters. Their exports are chiefly tin, copper, sulphur, shells, and mother of pearl.

## CHINESE TATARY.

UNDER this general name may be comprehended the whole remainder of the Asiatic continent, bounded on the north by Asiatic Russia, on the west by Independent Tatar, on the south by Tibet and China, and on the east by the ocean. It is a very extensive region, including many countries little explored, and which cannot be laid down or described with geographical precision. Taken as a whole, however, it is the greater part of that middle belt of Asia which forms a vast elevated plain, consisting chiefly of dry sandy deserts, but frequently interrupted by fertile tracts in the courses of rivers, and crossed in parts by mountainous ridges. Though distinguished by the appellation of Chinese, its relation to that empire is, in many parts, especially to the west and north, very lax and precarious ; and some of the Tatar tribes within these bounds might, without impropriety, be ranked among the independent.

As this extent of land lies in the same parallel with some of the finest parts of the temperate zone, it might be expected to exhibit the character of the warm climates ; but its great elevation and open exposure subject it to severe cold, though in a far less degree than Siberia. Among its great natural features may be mentioned the wide deserts of Cobi and Shamo ; the former on the borders of Tibet, the latter of China ; both destitute of water and plants, and only to be crossed, like those of Arabia, by camels.

Of its mountainous ridges, those on its northern, western, and southern boundaries have been mentioned under the bordering countries. A long chain, under the name of the Alak mountains, runs from west to east through the central part of the country, till it turns northward to join the Altaic chain. Others in the same direction are traced further to the east,

which at length nearly meet a chain descending southward from the Daourian ridge, called the Siolki mountains. To the north of Corea, in the country of the Mandshurs, are several considerable ridges; and a mountainous chain borders the coast of the sea of Japan. The maps, however, are not much to be trusted for their accuracy in delineating the surface of these little explored regions.

Of the rivers, that of Yarkand, in the western part, uniting several streams of Little Bucharia, has a considerable course before it discharges itself into the lake of Lok. Some of the great rivers of Siberia and of China have been mentioned as having their rise and the earlier part of their course in Tatar. The great river of eastern or Mandshur Tatar is the Amur, called also Sagalien Oula. This takes its rise in the Yablonoi chain, and flows through the Kalkas country, and on the borders of the province of Nertchinsk, under the names of Kerlon and Argoon: it then, in a very circuitous course, passes through Daouria and the Mandshur country, receiving numerous streams, of which the principal is the Songari Oula from the south: after the junction of that river its course is north-easterly to the sea, into which it falls opposite to the northern extremity of the island of Sagalien. The whole of its course is estimated at 1850 miles.

A number of large lakes occur in this tract of Asia. Eastward from the Palkati Nor, several lie in a line, of which the largest and most remote is the Zaizan Nor. Directly to the south of this, but at a great distance, is the Lok Nor. At the eastern extremity of the great desert of Cobi is another group of lakes, in which is distinguished the Koko Nor, or Blue Lake. Many more are scattered over the different deserts.

The vegetable and animal products of this country, in the districts most favoured by soil and situation, are those usual in the temperate zone: the only peculiarities are in the wild and uncultivated parts. A singular vegetable production met with in the deserts, concerning which various fables have been related, is a kind of fern called the barometz, or Scythian lamb; the latter name being given to it from its woolly body, attached to the ground by a long slender stalk, affording a distant r-

semblance to a lamb grazing. The true rhubarb is produced in the Tatarian wilds; and also a drug of high esteem in China, the ginseng, regarded almost as an universal medicine.

The wild animals that roam over these boundless tracts are extremely various, and present many animating objects to the hunter. Not far beyond the great wall the tiger and other animals of prey are met with. Of game, there are numerous herds of deer and antelopes, the rock-goat, the wild horse and ass, many of the weasel kind, hares, rabbits, and several burrowing animals of the marmot and murine tribes. The emperors of China of the present race have been accustomed to pass some months of the summer and autumn in the Tatarian frontiers, pursuing the chase in the style of oriental grandeur, attended by a whole army of soldiers and huntsmen. Falconry is a favourite amusement on these occasions, to which the nature of the country is peculiarly adapted; and these predaceous birds are taught to fly not only at feathered game, but at hares and antelopes, the latter of which they check in their career, by settling between the horns, and pecking at the eyes.

Of the inhabitants of Chinese Tataria there are two leading divisions, the Mongols and the Mandshurs. The former possess the greatest extent of country, and are subdivided into the principal tribes of the Kalmycs, Eluths, and Kalkas. The Mongols are a nomadic or wandering people, subsisting almost entirely on the products of their flocks and herds, which they lead to pasture in different parts of their wide territory, according to the season and the state of forage. Their domestic animals are horses, camels, oxen, sheep, and goats. They dwell in tents of felt, and use covered waggons for the conveyance of their families from place to place. The men are employed in hunting, and sometimes in predatory expeditions: the women make all the household furniture and clothing, and prepare the food. They are rather an unsightly race, with squat bodies, flat faces, small oblique eyes, short chins, large ears, black hair, and a brown complexion. Their senses are remarkably acute, their tempers cheerful, and their general character kind, frank, and hospitable. They are fond of amuse-

ments, which consist of feats of strength and activity, music and dancing, metrical tales, and games of skill. Their migrations appear like parties of pleasure, and no people are less molested with cares and anxieties. It is not, therefore, to be wondered at that they prefer their own way of life to the settled abode of the cultivators of the land and the inhabitants of towns, and cannot easily be induced to change it. They are distributed into the ranks of nobles, commoners, and clergy, and are under a loose kind of subjection to a prince, to whom they pay tribute, and whom they serve in war on horseback at his summons. Their weapons are chiefly bows and arrows. The religion of the Mongols is an idolatry founded on the notion of good and evil spirits, who are worshipped with many superstitious rites. A very singular mode of giving efficacy to prayers is practised by them, consisting of placing little devotional billets in a machine whirled round by the wind, like a windmill.

The Mandshurs do not greatly differ from the Mongols in character and appearance, but more of them have fixed habitations, and they are in a higher state of civilization in consequence of their intimate connexion with the Chinese emperors, who are of their race. They are said to have neither temples nor idols, but to worship one supreme being. The languages of these two Tatarian nations are radically different. That of the Mandshurs must be a regular and cultivated dialect, since the late emperor caused many Chinese books to be translated into it.

Of all the regions of Chinese Tatar, the most interesting is that called LITTLE BUCHARIA. It lies to the east of Great Buchar, separated by the ridge of Belur Tag; and appears, notwithstanding its appellation, not less extensive than that country. It is inhabited by a civilized people, entirely different from the Tatars in features and manners, addicted to commerce, and unwarlike. The prevailing religion is the mahometan. They were subdued and made tributary by the Kalucks, but are said now to be under the dominion and protection of China. The country, though cold, is fertile; and among their commodities are gold and precious stones, raw silk, musk, and rhubarb. They are clothed with cotton, and



drink tea. Cashgar, their capital town, formerly gave name to a kingdom, and was well known in the east by its commerce, part of which it still retains, though declined from its ancient splendour. Yarkand is the other principal town.

Further to the east, beyond lake Lok, in the centre of deserts, are situated the town and small district of Hami, Chami or Chamil, a fertile and well cultivated spot. The town itself is populous and well-built, and a place of commerce.

That part of the Mandshur country which lies between the wall of China and the river Amur, appears to be well inhabited, with numerous towns and villages upon the banks of the rivers. The principal city is Sagalien Oula Hotun, upon the river of that name. Nimgouta, nearer the Chinese border, is a place of importance, and the chief mart for the ginseng trade. There are several other cities marked in the maps, but our knowledge of this country is very slight.

Of Karakum or Karakorum, the ancient capital of the empire of Zingis, the site is disputed. Tombs and relics of antiquity are scattered over various parts of the Tatarian deserts, indicating the former existence of power and population, which have passed away with the changes of dominion. Limited and over-awed by two such potent empires as the Russian and Chinese, there is no probability that these wide countries, thinly peopled and uncivilized as they are, should ever again pour forth the conquering hosts which at several former periods have overwhelmed the neighbouring regions.

## COREA.

THIS is a large peninsula, projected from the country of the Mandshur Tatars into the sea between China and Japan. It is of an oblong shape ; and the properly peninsular part extends from north to south between the latitudes of  $40^{\circ}$  and  $35^{\circ}$ . How much farther its limits stretch into Tataria does not seem exactly ascertained. A chain of mountains divides it longitudinally, running nearer to the eastern side than the western. Many rivers spring from it, and chiefly flow to the west. The climate is very rigorous in the winter, especially in the northern part, where the sea between it and China is often frozen. There is summer heat, however, sufficient to bring to maturity many of the products of the southern climates ; and the lower parts yield rice, tobacco, cotton, and silk. Serpents, alligators, and other animals of hot countries are also frequent.

Corea is in general a fruitful country, and supports a numerous population. The character and manners of the people much resemble those of the Chinese : they have the same craft, effeminacy, sensuality, and love of gain. They are said however to be social and hospitable. Their language differs from both the Chinese and Tatarian. They use different kinds of writing for different purposes, and print books in the Chinese manner. Literature is in credit with them, and much attention is paid to education. Their religion is idolatrous, with a numerous body of established clergy. Corea is governed by a king of its own, but tributary to and dependent on the emperor of China. He is absolute, and his government is rigorous. The capital is named Kingkitao. Commerce is carried on both with the Chinese and Japanese.

## JAPAN.

AMONG the nations of the East, few have better claims to the notice of the speculatist on human life and manners than the Japanese. This people, like those of the British isles, have so well improved the advantages of their insular situation, that they have rendered a country not extraordinarily favoured by nature, the seat of an exuberant population, of useful and ingenious arts, and a comparatively high degree of mental culture.

The islands of which the Japanese empire is composed, lie in the eastern ocean, not far from the peninsula of Corea, stretching from south-west to north-east, chiefly between the 32d and 40th degrees of N. latitude. The three principal islands are named Kiusiu, SIKOKU, and NIPON. Kiusiu, the most southerly, is about 140 miles by 90: Sikokf, 90 miles by 45: Nipon, 750 miles by an average breadth of 80.

The climate of Japan is subject to those extremes which are usual in similar latitudes throughout Asia, being violently hot in summer, and rigorously cold in the northern and hilly parts during winter. It has likewise the insular mutability of weather, and general preponderance of moisture. Thunder and tempests are frequent, and earthquakes not uncommon. The surrounding seas partake of the turbulence of the atmosphere, and are much agitated with storms.

The face of the country in a general view is much diversified, the extensive plains being few, and the greater part consisting of mountains, hills, and vallies. The sea-coasts are rocky; and in all the islands the land rises into mountains towards the interior. Some of these are so lofty as to be covered with snow during great part of the year. Several of them are volcanic, some extinct, and some still burning. Numerous

rivers descend from the mountainous ridges, but of short course. There is a considerable lake near the centre of Nipon, named Oitz. With the internal parts of Japan we are, however, very imperfectly acquainted; the geography of the natives being rude, and foreigners being narrowly restricted in their researches.

The vegetable products of Japan extend from the common grains and other esculent plants of the colder climates, to the rice, tea, vine, sugar-cane, orange, ginger, indigo, cotton, and bamboo of the warmer. A species of sumach (the *Rhus Vernix*) affords the fine black varnish which distinguishes the Japanese cabinet ware. A variety of valuable trees and shrubs grow wild in the mountainous parts, among which are the Indian laurel and the camphor-tree.

In the animal creation probably no tract of equal extent is so poor; both the wild beasts and most of the domestic quadrupeds having been forced to give way to the necessity, in this over-peopled country, of sacrificing every thing to the production of the greatest quantity of human food, which is sought in the vegetable kingdom. It is asserted that neither sheep nor goats are seen in the whole empire; that horses are few, and horned cattle still fewer: the latter are only employed for labour, and not reared either for their milk or their flesh. Even swine are mostly rejected as hurtful to agriculture; and the only animal food in common use is derived from fish and poultry.

Japan is rich in metals. Gold is said to be so plentiful, that the working of its mines is restricted, lest it should lose its value by becoming too common. Only one or two are at present worked; but these are very productive, yielding the precious metal pure, in large lumps. Silver is a rarer product, and in consequence bears more than its usual proportion to gold in value. Copper is common, and remarkably fine in quality. Iron is less abundant; but enough is extracted for the manufacture of arms and utensils. Agates, coal, amber, sulphur, marble, and porcelain clay, are among the valuable minerals. Warm mineral waters occur in various parts of these islands.

The inhabitants of Japan are in appearance a kindred race to those of China and Corea, from which countries they probably migrated at some remote period. They are a well-made active people, stout, of middle stature, and of a yellowish complexion, varying to white or brown according to the greater or less exposure to the sun. They have small oblong eyes, short noses, and black shining hair. In character they are more manly and spirited than the Chinese, having always defended their country with courage, and manifesting great contempt of death. They are mild and courteous in their demeanour when not irritated, but impatient of affronts, and nice in the point of honour; revenging every insult or injury with blood. Even the women, who, as well as the men, constantly wear a dagger, are capable of using it with great coolness and resolution. Suicide is common in both sexes. The Japanese are highly civilized in their manners, and are addicted to amusements and pleasures of all kinds. They have a greater desire of information than the Chinese, and less of that national pride which inculcates contempt of the arts and learning of foreigners.

The language of Japan is radically different from that of China, and is much less difficult of acquisition. They use block-printing, have many books, and cultivate literature. In science, however, they have all the Asiatic inferiority to the Europeans. Education, as far as reading and writing, is provided for by numerous schools.

The established religion is polytheism, including the belief of one supreme being. There are two leading sects; that of Sinto, which inculcates the worship of inferior deities as mediators, but without the use of images, and admits a future state of rewards and punishments; and that of Budso, the Boodh of Hindostan, the fundamental tenet of which is the transmigration of souls. Temples are numerous; and there are regular and secular clergy, the former exclusively possessing the mysteries of their religion. Several monastic orders, both male and female, belong to this class. Monthly and yearly festivals are kept, in which the devotional rites are of a cheerful and amusing kind. There is also, as in China, a sect of moral phi-

losophers which professes a rational epicurism, and discards the vulgar system of religious belief.

After the discovery of Japan by the Portuguese in the 16th century, catholic missionaries went thither, who were extremely assiduous in propagating their own faith; and such was their success, that they reckoned a very numerous body of christian converts, including some members of the imperial family, and instituted a regular church-government, with all its hierarchical pomp. But the pride and ostentation of these foreign clergy, together with that spirit of political intrigue which has always accompanied the Romish missionaries, especially of the order of Jesuits, brought on a furious persecution in the 17th century, which, after the death of many thousand converts, ended in the total extirpation of the christian religion. As one of the charges against the European priests was that of a plot to reduce the island under the dominion of Portugal, christianity became so much an object of hatred and suspicion, that an annual ceremonial of trampling upon the cross was instituted, which still subsists. Admission into the country and its ports was thenceforth denied to every European nation except the Dutch, who prudently took care to display rather the difference, than the conformity, of faith between them and the Roman catholics, and were considered in the east as the inveterate foes of the Portuguese.

This enmity to a foreign and intrusive religion was, doubtless, enhanced by the peculiar nature of the government, in which the Dairi or supreme pontiff held the sovereign authority, to which he was appointed by the high ecclesiastical court, according to a certain rule of succession. At length, however, the Kubo, or secular emperor, deprived the Dairi of his civil power; and he now resides at another capital, where he holds his court, and is treated with great respect, but is held in a kind of honourable custody. His court is chiefly occupied with literary pursuits and matters of religious ceremonial. The Kubo is an absolute hereditary monarch; deriving great part of his revenue from his own estates, which consist of several provinces and towns. It is a singular part of the constitution, that the provinces in general are governed by resident princes;

in whom this dignity is hereditary. The jealousy of the supreme government, however, obliges them to leave their families at the capital, as well as to make a personal residence there during part of every year. Jealousy is, indeed, the leading feature of the Japanese polity, and it is carried to the greatest extreme in all connections with foreigners. Every Japanese incurs the penalty of death by leaving his country; and even if shipwrecked on a foreign shore, he can scarcely escape capital punishment if he return. The laws of Japan are few, but rigorously executed; and death is the penalty for most crimes. The police is very strict and vigilant, and great order prevails throughout every department, public and private.

With the exception, perhaps, of China, Japan is the country in which population seems to have been carried to the greatest height. Though we are not furnished with any enumeration of the people, all accounts concur in representing the whole empire as crowded with inhabitants; of which fact, the extreme industry and economy exercised in providing the necessities of life is an additional proof. Agriculture is the great resource for maintaining these numbers, and in no country is it practised with equal attention. Not the least particle of what may serve for manure is suffered to be wasted, though the collection of it is no small annoyance to the senses. The land is 'every where tilled like a garden'; and strangers are equally astonished and gratified with the view of terraces raised by means of walls one above another on the declivities of steep hills, presenting beds of all kinds of esculent vegetables, flourishing in situations where nature has seemed to deny them even a place of growth. The Japanese are proficient in the art of cookery, and season their food with a great variety of sauces. Their drink is chiefly a beer made of rice: tea is also of universal use.

Their houses are constructed of wood, generally of slight fabric, plastered with clay, and coloured white. They are roomy and commodious, though low; and by means of sliding partitions of mats, changes may be made in the apartments at pleasure. The architecture of Japan, like that of China, is void of grandeur; and the palaces are chiefly distinguished by a

multitude of detached buildings occupying a great space, with a lofty square tower of many stages in the centre. The furniture is very simple.

Their clothing is almost entirely of silk or cotton, both plentiful materials in this country : it consists of trousers and loose robes, varied in number according to the season. Their stuffs are strong and well manufactured. In many of the arts of life the Japanese have arrived at great perfection. Their varnished cabinet ware is unrivalled ; their porcelain is reckoned superior to that of China ; their paper is very fine ; and they have excellent workmen in iron and copper. Their manufactures, however, are chiefly for their own use, and the commerce which they carry on is almost solely internal. Their harbours are crowded with large and small vessels of their own, conveying the commodities of one island or province to another. These, by their construction, are even less fitted than the Chinese junks for distant navigation ; nor would any improvement in this respect be permitted by the government. Japan holds no intercourse with any foreign court, and admits no foreigners to reside in the country, or even to trade with it, excepting the Dutch and Chinese. These nations also are restricted to a single port, and are subjected to humiliations which no spirited people would endure. The exclusive monopoly of trade which the emperor retains for himself is, probably, the only cause of even this degree of indulgence. The trade with China is the most important, from which country Japan receives raw silk, sugar, drugs, &c. in return for copper in bars, varnished ware, and other commodities. The Dutch carry out various articles of luxury and European manufactures for the use of the higher classes, and bring back camphor, copper, and other products of the country.

The Japanese towns and cities are all open, and there are no other fortifications than a few castles : they trust for defence to their insular situation, and the number and valour of their people. The capital of the empire, and residence of the civil sovereign, is Jedo, situated on a bay of the principal island, Nipon. This is affirmed to be 21 leagues or hours walk in circumference, and is probably not less populous than any city



in China. The imperial palace occupies a vast extent; and is indeed, a considerable town of itself. The houses in general are low and mean, but the residences of the numerous princes and great officers are splendid, according to the style of the country.

Miaco, near the centre of the same island, the spiritual capital, is the second city in size, but the first for commerce, and the seat of many manufactures. Its population is reckoned at above 400000. Nagasaki, in the island of Kiusiu, is the port allotted for foreign commerce. It is a large city, at the mouth of a broad, but shallow river, which surrounds it. Opposite to it is the small island of Desima, on which the Dutch have their factory. They are kept there in a state of imprisonment, being allowed no access to the country, except at the time of an annual visit, which their chief, with some attendants, is obliged to make to the court at Jedo. These journeys, though conducted under strict guard, have been the only modern sources of our knowledge of the interior state of this empire.

JESSE. To the north of Nipon lies a large island called Jesse or Chicha; by the natives Insu. This is inhabited by an uncivilized but harmless people, tributary to the Japanese, some of whom reside in the island, and with great vigilance prevent any intercourse between the inhabitants and foreigners. The country appears to be pleasant and fertile, and adapted to all the productions of the temperate zone; yet it is little cultivated, and fish is the principal sustenance of the natives. If Japan be really overpeopled, it seems extraordinary that more of the Japanese do not colonize this island; but narrow suspicion has apparently taken place of all liberal and enlarged principles of policy in this empire.

SAGALIEN, or TCHOKA, a large island due north from Jesse, extending from the 46th to the 54th degree of N. latitude, but with a disproportionate breadth, called by the natives Tchoka, was unexplored till the voyage of the late unfortunate navigator Perouse. The Russians were acquainted with the northern part of it, which they named Sagalien, as lying opposite to

the mouth of the great river of that name, or the Amur. The Japanese are conversant with the southern part, which they call Oku Jesso. A long narrow channel runs between this island and the coast of Tatar, which grows shallower on proceeding northwards, so as to prevent the passage of large vessels ; and it may possibly be here joined by sand-banks to the continent. The country is mountainous towards the centre, and overgrown with wood. The shores are level, and well fitted for cultivation. The inhabitants are a mild and intelligent race, different in feature from the Tatars and Chinese, and live nearly in what is termed the savage state. In the south they possess articles which appear to be procured by traffic from Japan.

## EAST INDIAN ISLANDS.

TO the south of all the countries of eastern Asia above described lies a numerous range of islands, some of them among the largest on the globe, and all filled with the richest and rarest products of the tropical regions. On a general survey they appear like the wrecks of some former continent, equalling in mass some of the large portions into which the main land of Asia is divided, and torn by the sea into a great variety of irregular shapes. Amidst this irregularity there may, however, be distinguished a grand outline, formed by the islands of Sumatra, Java, Bally, Sumbava, Floris, Timor, and some smaller, which, stretching from the peninsula of Malacca to New Guinea, presents a creseent-like front to the waters of the Indian ocean, and embraces within its shelter the great group of islands extending northwards into the sea of China.

**SUMATRA.** This great island, running nearly parallel to the Malayan coast, from which it is separated by a narrow strait, is cut into nearly two equal parts by the equator. It extends, in a direction from north-west to south-east, to the length of 950 miles, by a breadth of about 200. The face of country is in general uneven, a chain of mountains pervading its whole length, consisting in many parts of a double or triple range, and approaching nearest to the western coast. One of the highest points, named mount Ophir, situated directly under the equator, has been found by mensuration not greatly inferior in height to Mont Blanc in Savoy. Between the ridges are elevated plains, with lakes, the sources of rivers. Many streams fall to the western side, whose channels are too shallow and broken to serve the purposes of navigation.

The soil, for the most part, is a stiff clay covered with a fertile black mould. In the lower parts, between the mountains and the sea, are large swamps. The internal country, especially towards the south, is overrun with impenetrable forests. The heat is more moderate in this and the other tropical islands than on the continent, even much more remote from the equator. The seasons are divided into the rainy and dry; the former comprehending the months from November to March, the latter, those from May to September: the intermediate months have variable weather.

Of the vegetable products, rice is cultivated for common food; and sagó, a farinaceous substance formed in the stem of a species of palm, is also much used. Other articles, either wild or cultivated, are pepper, camphor, gum-benzoin, cassia-cinnamon, cotton, coffee, the rattan and bamboo canes, and various kinds of timber and dying wood.

Of domestic animals, there are the horse, cow, and sheep, all of small breeds, and the buffalo, which is principally employed in labour. The wild animals are the elephant, rhinoceros, hippopotamus, and the tiger, which is no where more formidable or frequent. The number of people devoured by tigers on their journeys, or when engaged in their domestic occupations, surpasses belief; and instances are related of whole villages depopulated by them. By an unfortunate superstition the natives are withheld from using means for the destruction of these ravagers, which multiply in security in the woods and thickets. A similar prejudice prevails with respect to the alligators, with which the rivers abound, and which carry off many people while bathing. A very beautiful species of the pheasant, called the Argus, and the common poultry in a wild state, called jungle-fowl, enliven the Sumatran prospects.

Among mineral products, gold is frequently met with, but of inferior purity; tin is an article of exportation, and there are ores of excellent iron.

Of the inhabitants of Sumatra, those on the coast are chiefly Malays, and have the language, manners, and religion of that people, as in their original peninsula. In the interior are dif-

ferent tribes of natives, of whom those called Rejangs seem to be the purest race. They are described as being rather short and slender, with yellow complexions, of simple manners, and singularly modest, grave, and temperate, but servile, indolent, improvident, and uncleanly. Their civilization is of a low degree, and their arts are few. They live in villages, governed by a kind of patriarchal chief, and over all a prince presides with a vague authority. They have no religious worship, but believe in the existence of spiritual beings, whom they regard with superstitious dread. Their reverence for tigers and alligators seems to imply a notion of the transmigration of souls.

Another native sovereignty is that of Batta. These people, from their custom of eating prisoners taken in war, appear to be in a more savage state. The languages of these two are different, and, what is remarkable, are written in totally distinct characters. In the north-western extremity of the island is the kingdom of Acheen, frequently mentioned in the commercial history of the East-Indies. Its natives are stouter and of a darker complexion than those of the other parts. They carry on a considerable trade with the Coromandel coast.

The principal Malayan state is called Menang Cabul. Its people excel in filigree work in gold and silver, and in the manufacture of silk and cotton stuffs. It is affirmed that there are savage races in the mountains of the interior covered with hair, and nearly approaching to orang-outangs. The English East-India company has established the settlement of Bencoolen on the western part of Sumatra, chiefly on account of the pepper trade. It is one of the most unhealthy of the European factories.

The island of BANCA, lying off the south-eastern coast of Sumatra, is noted for its abundant produce of tin, of which the Dutch have long exported great quantities without exhausting the mines.

JAVA. Separated from the south-eastern point of Sumatra by a narrow channel called the Strait of Sunda, lies the island

of Java, stretching longitudinally east and west upwards of 600 miles, with a medial breadth of 100. The climate and products of this island are similar to those of Sumatra. It rises into a mountainous ridge in the centre, and is overspread with a thick growth of lofty trees and ever-green shrubs. Volcanoes exist in various parts.

The Javanese are of a yellow complexion, with not unpleasant features. There are three or four native principalities, in which the people are mostly mahometans. This island is best known as the principal seat of the Dutch East-India company, in their celebrated city of Batavia. Whatever could be effected by European art and industry to render this place a splendid and commodious capital, has not been neglected; and its harbour, fortifications, docks, naval arsenals, and other public structures, are all excellent in their kind. The governor-general resides in a palace, and displays a state equal to that of a potent sovereign. The city is spacious, and contains a very various population, of which a large portion is formed by a colony of Chinese, who come hither in spite of the laws of their country against emigration, and preserve their national manners and habitual industry. The commerce of Batavia is extensive, and a great quantity of wealth centres in it. But all its advantages are dearly purchased by its extreme unhealthiness, occasioned by its low and marshy situation, aggravated by the canals and rows of trees, with which, in imitation of the towns of Holland, it is copiously furnished. Probably no foreign settlement of Europeans exhibits such examples of mortality; so that it is surprising that even the thirst of gain should allure strangers to make it their abode. It is usual for three out of four of new-comers from Europe to die within the first year; and navigators, on touching here to refit and obtain refreshments, have lost more men in a few weeks than in all the rest of their voyages of discovery round the globe.

BALLY is peopled with Gentoos. It is well cultivated, and full of inhabitants, who spin great quantities of cotton yarn, which the Chinese export. Provisions are plentiful and cheap. In this island not only the Hindoo custom of wives burning

themselves on the death of their husbands is observed, but dependents do the same in honour of their deceased masters.

TIMOR is a considerable island, well known by navigators, inhabited by a civilized people, accounted the bravest in these islands. It yields the white sandal-wood. The Portuguese formerly made a settlement in it, from which they were expelled by the Dutch; and this nation regards Timor as a kind of barrier to their spice trade.

BORNEO, the largest island in these seas, and probably in the world, exclusive of New Holland, lies directly north of Java, and in the parallel of Sumatra. It is crossed by the equator, and extends from about the 4th degree of S. latitude to the 6th or 7th of north. Its breadth is about two-thirds of its length. Of this great tract of land very little is known beyond the sea-coasts. These, for the most part, consist of muddy flats, intersected by rivers and overgrown with forests, which reach far within land. The middle of the island rises into lofty mountains, many of them volcanic, and productive of frequent earthquakes. Of the rivers, a large one is traced descending from the central parts to the south, which is broad and navigable for a considerable way.

The products are similar to those of the neighbouring islands. Pepper is abundant; and the forests yield camphor, dragon's-blood, and sandal-wood, with many other fragrant and beautiful woods. Tigers are numerous and destructive. The Orang-utangs of Borneo are said to have the faculty of lighting fires and cooking food; but perhaps the wild human natives have been mistaken for them. Gold and diamonds are found in the interior country.

The coasts of Borneo are chiefly inhabited by Malays and Macassars, who are mahometans; and there are settlements of Japanese. On account of the low level of the land, the houses are commonly built on posts fixed in rafts which are moored to the shore, and rise and fall with the tide; and whole villages of this construction are floated from place to place on occasion. The natives of the interior are black, with

long hair, of middle stature, and enfeebled by the climate. They are idolaters, and of a cruel and vindictive disposition, using poisoned darts in their wars with each other. They are distributed into several kingdoms, of which the principal is situated on the great southern river. There is a town of moderate size, called Borneo, on the north-western part of the island, which carries on a trade in pepper and other native commodities. European colonies have not prospered in Borneo, the settlers having been repeatedly cut off; and the Chinese are in possession of the chief foreign commerce.

**PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.** To the north-east of Borneo lies a numerous group of islands which, after they were taken possession of by the Spaniards, were named the Philippine, from king Philip II. Of these, the largest is the isle of LUZON, which is computed at near 500 miles in length, by a breadth of 100. A chain of lofty mountains runs through it, containing several volcanoes, of which earthquakes are, as in other islands of these seas, frequent concomitants. It has a fertile soil, and is rich in its products. The finest cotton known in trade grows here; and rice, sugar-cane, and the cocoa-tree, are cultivated with success. Gold, copper, and iron, are among the discovered minerals. The natives, called Tagals, seem to be of Malayan origin. They are a personable race, of a mild disposition, dwelling in huts of bamboo elevated upon posts.

The Spaniards have their principal East-Indian settlement in this island: this is Manilla, a populous, well-built and strongly fortified city; but, like other Spanish settlements, encumbered with a great number of religious houses. A commerce of great importance has long been carried on across the Pacific ocean, between Manilla and Acapulco in Mexico, by large ships called galleons, which, from their rich lading, were formerly the principal objects of cupidity to the rovers of hostile nations, or to pirates. It is said that the hazard has latterly been diminished by employing smaller vessels. The Chinese were established in great numbers in the suburbs and vicinity of Manilla, and by their industry were very serviceable as husbandmen and artis-



ans ; but either bigotry or suspicious policy has caused them to be expelled.

Mindanao or Magindanao, is the next in size of the Philippines. It is a fine and fertile island, mountainous, but interspersed with watered vales of a rich soil, and presenting scenes of the greatest beauty and luxuriance. Horses and horned cattle suffered to run wild have multiplied exceedingly. The true cinnamon tree is said to be a native of this island, and gold is among its products. The inhabitants are a mixed race, but the Malay character and mahometan religion are most prevalent. Several Chinese customs are observed, and some people of that nation, and also Gentoos, are among the inhabitants. The government is a monarchy, administered by a sultan, and a rajah who is his successor elect. The principal town is named Selangan. The Spaniards conquered the northern part of the island, on which they have settlements. Among the curiosities of this country is a spacious cave, the earth of which yields salt-petre.

Of the other Philippines, some are of considerable magnitude, and all afford a variety of useful vegetables and wild animals. Many display volcanic appearances, abounding in lavas and vitrifications, sulphur, and hot springs.

**CELEBES.** To the east of Borneo, separated from it by the strait of Macassar, is situated the large island of Celebes. It extends 600 miles in length, but is so intersected with deep bays, that its medial breadth does not exceed 60 or 70 miles. This island rises into lofty mountains, many of them volcanic, and presents scenes of sublimity and beauty superior even to those of the other romantic isles of the Indian sea. Many rivers rise among the hills, which precipitate themselves down rocky channels, fringed with trees of vast magnitude and perpetual verdure. This island yields rice, maize, sago, sugar-cane, pepper, and the other usual fruits and vegetables of the tropics. It is well stocked with deer, wild buffaloes, hogs, goats, and other domestic animals. There are gold mines, and the sands of some of the rivers are rich in this metal.

The people are of the Malayan race, and are called Macassars. They are divided into several tribes, governed by arbitrary chiefs or rajahs. Their religion is mahometan; their character somewhat ferocious and predatory; and in their wars they make use of arrows tinged with the deadly poison afforded by several plants of the country. The land is tolerably cultivated, and the population is considerable. The Dutch possess several of the ports, and exercise an influence over the natives, but only of a limited kind. Their principal settlement is Macassar. There are several small islands in the vicinity of Celebes, some of which have Dutch garrisons.

## THE MOLUCCAS, OR SPICE-ISLANDS.

TO the east of Celebes, between it and New Guinea, lies a number of islands, of which the first group only is the proper Moluccas; but the whole may be considered conjunctly with respect to their production of those rich aromatics which has rendered them so important in a commercial view, and has bestowed upon them the common appellation of the Spice Islands.

The largest of these is GILOLO, an island very irregular in its form, and resembling Celebes in its intersection by deep bays. Its shores are low, but towards the centre it rises into high peaks. The bread-fruit and sago are abundant in Gilolo, and it is plentifully furnished with wild and domestic animals. The natives are industrious, and are much employed in weaving cotton.

CERAM is the next in size. It produces cloves, and has large forests of the sago-palm, with many valuable woods.

BOURO presents a wall-like front to the sea, and rises internally into lofty mountains. Among its animals are the civet-weasel and the babyroussa.

Of the Moluccas, properly so called, the most noted are TERNATE and TIDORE. These, though small islands, are the seats of native princes or sultans, of the mahometan faith, who hold dominion over many of the neighbouring isles, and possess considerable power by sea and land. The militia furnished by the territories of the sultan of Ternate is said to amount to upwards of ninety thousand men.

The islands particularly distinguished for the growth of the precious spices are Amboyna and Banda. It is well known that the Dutch have obtained a monopoly of this trade; and to preserve it to themselves, they have used every means to discourage the culture of spices in the other islands, and to restrict it to such as they could keep under their own inspection and control. Their policy in this matter has been extremely narrow, and often attended with acts of cruelty and oppression, as well to the natives as to foreign competitors.

AMBOYNA is an island of moderate size, beautiful in its appearance, and well cultivated, but subject to frequent earthquakes. Its deep sheltered vales are well adapted to the culture of the clove, the staple of the island. It also produces sugar-cane and coffee, and several delicious fruits. The natives are Malays, who are governed by chiefs of their own; but the Dutch exercise the sovereign authority. The town of Amboyna is the second in rank of their East Indian settlements: it is neatly built, and contains a considerable population.

The BANDAS are a group of islets, on several of which the nutmeg is cultivated. The principal of them is named Lantor, or Banda, by way of eminence. The tree bearing this spice grows luxuriantly in the black mould of these islands, and also in the lava of one of them which is volcanic. The Dutch are very jealous of its growth in any other islands, and have frequently caused its destruction when produced elsewhere by nature; but upon occasion of a short supply from Banda, they have permitted it to be cultivated in Amboyna. For these islands they pay a tributary acknowledgment to the sultan of Ternate.

NOTE. Some islands and countries more remote from the Asiatic continent, as New Guinea, New Holland, and the numerous isles of the Pacific ocean, are reserved to be treated of under a separate head.

## AFRICA.

THIS great peninsula, one of the quarters into which the world is popularly divided, ranks in size next above Europe; but in importance, whether in a political or philosophical view, it certainly is to be regarded as the lowest of the four.

Africa is a vast mass of solid land, unbroken by any considerable intrusion of the sea. It is strikingly peninsular, hanging only to the Asiatic continent by the narrow isthmus of Suez. The Red Sea, however, appears like a long lake interposed between the lands of Africa and Arabia, which approach very nearly at the southern extremity. The Mediterranean sea is likewise contracted to narrow bounds by the near approach of Spain to Barbary at the straits of Gibraltar. All the western, southern, and most of the eastern sides of Africa, are washed by a wide ocean. In shape, this peninsula, like most of the other detached masses of land on the globe, is broadest at the northern part, and goes on diminishing, though irregularly, to the southern extremity, where it terminates almost in a point. Its utmost extent is from about the 37th degree of N. latitude to the 34th of S. latitude, which may be estimated at 4900 miles. Its extreme breadth is nearly as much; but this it holds for only a small portion of its length.

In the map of Africa two circumstances cannot fail to strike the observer; one, the vast proportion of land marked by no vestiges of human inhabitants, and no features of the diversity of nature; the other, the paucity of large rivers making their way to the sea from the interior. The first of these circumstances is in part to be attributed to the few opportunities which scientific travellers have enjoyed of penetrating into the interior

of the country ; but it is likewise owing to the real and known existence of wide deserts in the internal parts of Africa, by which immense tracts are devoted to perpetual solitude and desolation. The want of rivers is, doubtless, a consequence of the parched and thirsty nature of the soil, as has been already remarked with respect to Arabia and southern Persia ; and this want is a secondary cause both of the sterility of the central regions, and of the difficulty found in attempting to explore them.

Our knowledge of Africa is almost confined to its coasts ; its géography must, therefore, as yet be very incomplete. The laudable efforts made of late years by a society in Britain to extend this knowledge have already produced some effects, though not very considerable ; and there is reason to hope that progress is still making, and that the spirit of inquiry will not be suffered to languish.

Of the mountains of Africa, none is so celebrated as that ridge to which, or to parts of it, the ancients gave the name of Atlas, with a variety of attendant fictions. This, in modern geography, is described as a chain extending from the coast of Morocco on the west, in a north-easterly direction to the kingdom of Tunis. Of this chain, some parts are so lofty as to be clad in perpetual snow. Along the African coast of the Red sea runs a granitic ridge of no great height. High mountains exist in Abyssinia : others are marked as running parallel to the coasts of Mozambic and of Congo ; and as bordering the tract in which the rivers Senegal and Gambia flow. The lofty hills above the cape of Good Hope, communicating with ridges proceeding in land, have been described by many travellers. This is nearly all that is known with certainty concerning the mountains of Africa.

Of the rivers, the first place is indisputably due to the Nile, an object of wonder and curiosity from the earliest records of history to the present time. Its peculiarities will be treated of under the countries through which it holds its course. At present it may be observed, that the boasted discovery of its head in Abyssinia beyond the lake Dambea, only refers to the least considerable of the two main branches of which it is composed ;

and that the principal stream, called the *White River*, which comes from the west, and is supposed to originate in the *Mountains of the Moon*, about the 8th degree of N. latitude, is still unexplored. After the junction of its branches, the Nile flows almost due north, till it makes its exit in the *Mediterranean sea* at the *Egyptian Delta*. In length of course, though not in breadth of channel and copiousness of water, it may vie with some of the most famous rivers on the globe.

The rivers which join the *Mediterranean sea* on the *Barbary coast* are none of them considerable enough to deserve notice in this general survey of Africa. On the western side, the river of *Senegal* may be regarded as a noble stream, though its course appears inconsiderable compared to the vast breadth of the peninsula at this part. The same may be said of the *Gambia*, which enters the sea not far southward of the former. The *Niger*, which is represented as taking its rise near the head of the *Senegal*, and flowing eastward till it terminates in a lake, is hitherto very partially known. The *Zahir of Congo*, and the *Zambezi of Mocaranga*, which discharges itself into the channel of *Mozambic*, are the principal remaining rivers.

Some lakes are obscurely known to exist in the central parts of Africa, but of no considerable magnitude.

Of the deserts, that which has chiefly come to the knowledge of Europeans is the *Zaara* or *Sahara*, extending from the shores of the *Atlantic* to the borders of *Egypt*, with the interruption of only a few insular spots of fertility, and forming a zone across Africa, which is nature's awful barrier between the inhabited tracts on the northern coast and the unknown interior. Other deserts of great extent bound the European settlements in the south of Africa; and there is reason to believe that a large share of this continent is excluded from the animated world by the prevalence of torrid tracts of naked sterility.

The climate of Africa has at all times been noted for excess of heat, to which quality all its productions, animal and vegetable, bear testimony. The dark hue and savage dispositions of the human inhabitants, and the peculiar ferocity of its numerous beasts of prey, seem in unison with the intense

heat of the sun and the wild horror of its deserts. Africa brings to the mind ideas of terror rather than of delight; and the relations of travellers scarcely ever inspire the reader with a wish to make this part of the world his residence.

We shall begin our survey of the African countries with that region which is contiguous to the quarter of the globe last treated of.



## EGYPT.

AMONG the countries which have attained a larger share of fame and consequence than their extent and natural advantages would seem to promise, a distinguished place must be allotted to Egypt. Its early culture and population is attested by the most ancient records of the human race ; and through a long series of ages, its arts, sciences, manners, and revolutions, have occupied the pages of history. Like most other seats of early renown, Egypt has lost its relative importance in the political system : it is still, however, an object of curiosity to the traveller and speculatist ; and some late circumstances have again rendered it a prominent figure in the eyes of Europe.

The land of Egypt is nothing more than the bed of the Nile for about 500 miles of the latter part of its course. Commencing at Assuan (the ancient Syene) about N. latitude  $24^{\circ}$ , it forms a narrow vale bounded by naked rocks and mountains to latitude  $30^{\circ}$ , where the river begins to branch out into several channels as it proceeds to the sea. This wide part forms an irregular triangle, which, from its resemblance to the Greek letter delta, was anciently called by that name : it is about 100 miles from north to south, and above 100 miles from east to west on the sea-coast ; and it constitutes the most fertile and important portion of Egypt. The Delta gradually subsides on the east in the sandy deserts which stretch across the isthmus of Suez into Arabia ; and on the west it is bounded by a continuation of the hilly chain which separates the region of the Nile from the Libyan deserts.

The soil of Egypt is a black tenacious mould, free from stones, and indicating the depositions of a river that has annually, from time immemorial, laid a large part of the country under water. The whole Delta, it is imagined, has been the creation of such successive depositions. The general face of the country must,

of course, be level ; but in the higher parts of the river, the banks ; where not rocky, rise as it were by steps, according as the stream has worn its way at its different points of elevation. The bordering mountains are most conspicuous on the eastern side of the Nile, between it and the Red sea. In Upper Egypt they form lofty and rugged cliffs of granite and porphyry. On the western side they are of humbler aspect, and chiefly consist of calcareous sand-stone or free-stone.

The Nile, the sole river of Egypt, and its characteristic feature, flows for the most part in a straight course nearly due north. Its greatest breadth is about one-third of a mile, and its depth, when free from inundation, not more than twelve feet.\* Of the mouths of the Nile mentioned by ancient writers, several are choked up, and those of Rosetta and Damietta alone remain considerable. The whole Delta is cut by communicating channels, partly natural and partly artificial, and many of them dry at low water. The annual inundation of the Nile, the great vivifying principle of Egypt, is the consequence of the periodical rains in the Abyssinian mountains. It begins about the 19th of June, and diffuses a muddy deluge over the land as far as its influence extends ; but it is an error to suppose that the whole of Egypt is then converted into a sea, with villages and trees emerging from the waves, according to some poetical descriptions : this is indeed true of the parts of the Delta nearest the sea ; but to other districts the water is led by canals, from which it is raised by machines to fertilize the fields. The river subsides to its natural level in October, after having left a rich manure on the surface of all the grounds which it has overflowed.

Several large and shallow lakes are formed by the stagnation of water near the mouths of the Nile. Of these the largest is that of Menzaleh, communicating by two channels with the sea. The lake of Mareotis, to the south of Alexandria, was become almost dry ; but the water having lately been re-admitted, by cutting the neck of land between it and the sea, it is again filled. To the west of the Nile, higher than the Delta, is the lake of

\* It is sometimes so shallow that a man can wade through it. See Niebuhr's Travels.

Kerim, supposed by some to have been the ancient artificial lake or reservoir of Mæris ; though others trace the relics of this last in a long deep valley of the vicinity.

The climate of Egypt has this peculiarity, that rain is extremely uncommon except in the upper parts, so that the whole dependence for the element so necessary to the purposes of life is upon the river. It is excessively hot during the spring and summer months ; and the winds from the surrounding deserts, loaded with particles of fine dust and saline exhalations, are very troublesome, and particularly noxious to the eyes. A luxuriant vegetation is the result of the combination of heat and moisture existing in the Delta and other well-watered parts, nor has any country obtained greater fame for its fertility. The naturalist, however, has but a narrow range in a tract so artificially constituted ; and few spontaneous products in any of the kingdoms of nature can be assigned to Egypt. The multiplicity of strange and monstrous births anciently attributed to the mud of the Nile, is reduced by sober examination to swarms of the insects and reptiles usual in similar situations.

Of native vegetables, the lotus, a species of water-lily, and the papyrus, the original material for writing upon, are of ancient fame as distinguishing the canals of the Nile. The Egyptian sycamore, the date palm, pistachia, oriental plane, cypress, caper-bush, senna, and mimosa, are frequent in the landscapes of this country. As objects of culture the finest European fruits are joined with the tropical plantain, sugarcane, and cotton ; and wheat and barley combine with rice, maize, and a variety of other esculent vegetables, to support the reputation of the harvests of this fertile land.

The crocodile, anciently the animal emblem of Egypt, is no longer met with in the lower parts of the Nile, and the hippopotamus has also disappeared. The ichneumon still carries on his accustomed hostilities against the serpent tribe, and the stork ibis frequents the marshes and pools. Among the domestic quadrupeds, camels and buffaloes are frequent.

The hatching of chickens by the artificial heat of ovens is an ancient practice in Egypt, which is still carried on to a great

extent, so as to render poultry very plentiful. Pigeons are also kept in great numbers.

Mineral treasures were little to be expected in such a country, nor does it seem ever to have yielded metals. Valuable kinds of stone for building and statuary have from remote times been extracted from the quarries of Upper Egypt. The fossil alkaline salt called natron, useful in the manufactures of soap and glass, is obtained from certain pools or small lakes situated in the desert westward from the Delta.

Egypt has for a long course of ages been subject to the dominion of foreigners, and its weak and superstitious inhabitants seem formed for slavery, corporeal and mental. The Copts are the modern descendants of the primitive race. They are of a dusky brown complexion, with features little resembling those of the African nations in general. They are reckoned ingenious, and well fitted for business, whence they are much employed as writers and accomptants. The Coptic language is no longer used in speech, the Arabic having universally taken its place. It exists in manuscripts, and its alphabet resembles the Greek. The mahometan religion predominates in Egypt; but many of the Copts are christians of a peculiar sect, and have their clergy, regular and secular.

The modern government of Egypt is one of the most confused and turbulent of which there is any example. Nominally subject to the Ottoman Porte, which sends a bashaw to reside and receive the tribute, it is really governed by an aristocracy of beys or military chiefs, belonging to the singular institution of Mamelukes, who are foreign slaves, generally of Christian parents, brought up to the use of arms, and possessed of the sole public force. These beys are divided into factions, perpetually in hostility with each other, and only united to control the Turkish bashaw, whom they frequently depose and expel. The people at large take no part in these contentions, and are plundered and oppressed by all parties. The peasantry, in particular, live in the most abject and squalid poverty. Tribes of predatory Arabs are hired by the contending beys, and augment the general confusion. The late invasion and conquest of Egypt by the French, and their expulsion by the English in

alliance with the Porte, added to the distractions of this wretched country ; and its future condition is beyond the reach of conjecture. From this state of things, it is not surprising that Egypt should have declined from its ancient wealth and population. At present it is estimated to contain about two millions and a half of people. Its revenue varies with the extortions practised by those in power.

The principal city of Egypt is Cairo, properly Kahira, situated upon the Nile, just above its division into the branches which form the Delta. It was formerly reckoned among the greatest capitals of kingdoms, and was dignified with the title of Grand : at that time it was a centre of the commerce of India, receiving its rich commodities by the way of the Red sea, before the discovery of the passage round the cape of Good Hope. A portion of this trade it now enjoys, and may be considered as the chief mart of eastern Africa. It is visited by caravans from the countries lying to the south and west, which bring slaves, gold dust, ivory, gums, and drugs. Yemen sends it coffee and frankincense. It has communications with Tunis and Tripoli, with Syria and Constantinople, and with the different trading countries of Europe. Various manufactures are also carried on within its walls. Its population has been reckoned at 300000, but visitations of the plague frequently thin its numbers. It consists of mahometan Arabs, who form the mass of the lower order ; of christian Copts, Mamelukes, Greeks, Syrians, and Arménians ; people from the Barbary states called Muggrebins, who inhabit a separate quarter, and are industrious in the pursuit of gain ; a few Turks, Jews, and many negro slaves. The streets are narrow, and there are few edifices or public places which would attract the notice of an European ; yet a certain degree of luxury and splendour prevails among its principal inhabitants. The manners of the people are oriental and mahometan. The chief amusements are frequenting the public baths, viewing the performances of the dancing girls, smoking in coffee-houses, listening to story-tellers and singers, and sailing in pleasure-boats on the Nile.

Alexandria, once the seat of learning and royal magnificence, and in later times a port of great commerce, is now dwindled to

a town of a low order. It has in some measure been ennobled by the military and naval transactions which have lately taken place in its vicinity. Rosetta or Rashid, and Damietta, are towns of some trade, and join with Alexandria in exporting the products of the country. These consist in rice, wheat, flax, sugar, sal-ammoniac, saltpetre, dressed leather, and linen.

Though modern Egypt presents little worth the traveller's notice, yet it possesses in its ancient monuments objects which, while they last (and they seem calculated for a duration equal to that of the world) will never fail to interest the learned and curious. The very same stupendous works which were gazed at with astonishment by the philosophers of Greece and the generals of Rome, at this day excite the wonder of enlightened visitors from modern Europe. The pyramids, which in one view are records of the folly and vanity of man, in another are proofs of his power to vie with the workmanship of nature herself in piling mass upon mass, and bidding defiance to the assaults of time. The general style of Egyptian art is the ponderous and gigantic; and an air of mysterious gloom is thrown over the relics of remote antiquity in this country, enhanced by the hieroglyphical sculptures with which they are covered. In Upper Egypt the finest remains of cities, temples, and palaces are found, indicating a degree of population and opulence at a very early period, which the present face of nature in those parts would not render credible without such testimonials. There is, indeed, every reason to believe that the desert has been making gradual encroachments on the cultivable tract on the borders of the Nile, for a series of centuries.

## NUBIA.

TO the south of Egypt is an extensive tract, computed at 600 miles by 500, in which the ancients chiefly placed their Ethiopia, while the Arabian geographers have termed it Nubia. A considerable part of this is occupied by deserts; but on the borders of the Nile are some fertile and populous districts, which compose the two states of Dongola and Senaar. The products of these countries, and manners of the people, denote their nearer approach to equinoctial heat. Senaar, the more distinguished of the two, has large forests of the acacia tree. The chief food of the inhabitants is millet. They are represented as a ferocious and perfidious race, little removed from a state of barbarism.

## DAR FUR.

TO the west of Senaar, beyond the country of Kordofan, lies the small kingdom of Fur, or Dar Fur. The people are mahometans, and are governed by a sultan or monarch, whose office is hereditary. They are in a state of half-civilization, partly cultivating the ground, and partly engaged in commercial pursuits; with a mixture of wandering and pastoral Arabs. They are under a more regular police than the neighbouring states, several of which have been subdued by their arms. One of the principal towns is Cobbe, chiefly inhabited by foreign merchants, who carry on a communication by means of caravans with Egypt. The people of Fur are licentious in their manners, and do not adhere with strictness to the rules of the Koran.

## ABYSSINIA.

ON the south of Senaar commence the territories of Abyssinia, a kingdom of ancient fame. It lies chiefly between the 9th and 15th degrees of N. latitude and reaches easterly to the Red sea: on the west it is separated by deserts from the country of Kordofan. The heat of this tropical region is tempered by the mountains with which it is overspread, and by the heavy rains which fall during the months from April to September: the other months, constituting the dry season, have cold nights. The mountains appear to be grouped irregularly, and to present few determinate ranges. They occur in different parts of the country, but are highest towards the centre. They have a truly alpine character, with craggy summits, and precipices of tremendous depth.

Of the rivers the principal is the Abyssinian Nile, called Bahr-el-Azrek, or the Blue river. This takes its rise to the south of lake Dambea, which after a short course it enters, and, going out at the opposite side, turns round in a spiral further south than its spring, and then flows north-eastward to meet the other and principal branch of the Nile in Senaar. The Tacuzzi, anciently Astaboras, the Abawi, anciently Astapus, and several other streams, render this one of the best watered districts of Africa. Besides the lake of Dambea or Tzana, there is that of Zawaia in the south, which gives rise to the Hawash, a river that enters the sea below the straits of Babelmandel.

The vegetable products of Abyssinia are in general those of internal Africa. Among the native trees and shrubs may be enumerated the tamarind, the sycamore fig, various species of mimosa and acacia, several euphorbias, and the trees that yield myrrh and balsam of Mecca. The coffee-shrub and date-palm



are cultivated ; and a herbaceous plant called ensete, analogous to the banana, is raised in plantations for its fruit, which serves the purposes of bread.

The catalogue of wild animals comprises most of those which range over the African deserts ; as the elephant, rhinoceros, lion, and panther. The hyena is extremely common, and so audacious as to haunt the streets by night ; but though very ravenous, it seems to be little formidable to man. Wild boars, antelopes, and monkeys, enliven the woods, and the hippopotamus and crocodile abound in the rivers. Of domestic animals, horned cattle are numerous. The horses are of a small breed, but full of spirit.

The mineralogy of this country has been imperfectly explored ; but mines are said to be worked on a small scale in some of the provinces. Gold is found in the sands of streams, and sometimes at the roots of trees. Fossil salt is dug in some parts.

The people of Abyssinia are supposed anciently to have been a colony from the opposite coasts of Arabia, their features being of the same cast, but their complexions darker. Although they have long lived under a certain degree of civilization, their manners are rude, and their dispositions ferocious ; nor has the christian religion, which they adopted in the 4th century from the Greek church, much contributed to the improvement of their morals. They retain, in conjunction with it, the rite of circumcision, and practise polygamy, or, at least, a free and open concubinage. The priests are little respected, and Lent fasts are the principal token of their regard to religious duties. Great licentiousness prevails in the intercourse between the sexes, which is particularly displayed at their banquets, the orgies of which are disgustingly brutal. Among other savage customs, that of cutting slices of flesh from living oxen for their ravenous repasts is attested by the traveller Bruce, an eyewitness.

The Abyssinian language is one of the descendants of the Arabic ; it has several dialects, of which the most prevalent are the Tigrin and the Amharic. The government is an absolute monarchy under the neguz or king, who is considered as the

sole proprietor of the land. Insurrections are frequent, and petty wars are continually carrying on with the neighbouring states, especially with the Gallas, a numerous and savage tribe to the south of Abyssinia. The ancient custom, recorded in poetry and romance, of bringing up the princes of the royal family in a sort of confinement upon a solitary and inaccessible mountain, has long been disused.

The habitations of the Abyssinians are mean, and all the arts are at present in a low condition among them. The manufactures are inconsiderable, and the commerce small: the latter is chiefly carried on with the port of Masua, on the Red sea. Gondar, the capital of the country, and the royal residence, is said to contain a population of 50000 persons. The other towns are not entitled to notice. Axum, the ancient capital, is distinguished by extensive ruins, among which are obelisks of granite.

## EASTERN COAST OF AFRICA.

THE long range of sea-coast from cape Guardafui, at the entrance of the Red sea, to the cape of Good Hope at the southern extremity of Africa, is possessed by a number of separate states or tribes, of which we have very little knowledge. When this coast was first visited by the Portuguese navigators, near the close of the 15th century, many flourishing settlements were found which had been originally established by Moors or mahometans from the shores of Arabia. Some of these were great marts of commerce, and held a correspondence with other settlements made by the same people on the western coast of Hindostan. The towns were well built, and displayed considerable opulence and civilization. The inland country was inhabited by the aboriginal natives, who were nearly in the savage state. The Portuguese, by their superior military skill and valour, expelled the Moors from their towns and harbours, and took possession of such as they did not entirely destroy; and this coast was reckoned an important member of their eastern empire. Its trade and consequence appear to have been long upon the decline; and so little have the Portuguese of late times contributed to the advancement of geographical information, that they have suffered this extensive and interesting country to remain a kind of blank in our maps. A slight sketch of it is all that we are at present enabled to give.

ADEL is a kingdom dependant on Abyssinia. It is a fertile country, and its port, named Zeila, at the mouth of the Red sea, is a place of considerable traffic.

The coast of AJAN, chiefly inhabited by mahometans, exports gold, ivory, and ambergris. Brava is a small state which pays tribute to the Portuguese. Melinda appears to have been the finest of the mahometan settlements at the period of the discovery, and is still possessed by people of that religion, who

are, however, partly dependant on the Portuguese. This nation holds a fortress and several churches in Melinda. Mombaza is another of their dependencies, together with Quiloa, once the chief and central settlement of the Moors in these parts. The country of ZANGUEBAR, which includes all the last-mentioned places, is low, marshy, and unhealthy, covered with thick forests, which give shelter to large herds of elephants. Its inland inhabitants are pagans, extremely superstitious, and savage in their manners. Gold is said to abound in it.

The coast of MOZAMBIQUE succeeds, regarded as subject to the Portuguese, who have, or had, a considerable town of that name, esteemed one of the best harbours on the eastern coast of Africa, but rendered unhealthy by its low situation.

The most powerful and civilized kingdom in this part of Africa is that of MOCARANGA, commonly called Monomotapa, which is properly the appellation of its sovereign. Sofala and Sabia are reckoned dependencies of it. It is a fertile country, extending far inwards along the course of the river Zambezi, and backed by a chain of mountains so lofty, that even in this latitude they are covered with perpetual snow. Great quantities of gold are procured from a mountain called Fura, and silver mines are opened near the source of the Zambezi. The Portuguese had two fortresses in this country, and a military station near the gold mines.

Further south is the bay of Delagoa, which is frequented by the European and American whale-fishers. Around it, and upon the streams that flow into it, different tribes of natives dwell, who are a harmless race of savages. The country is fertile, producing rice, maize, sugar-cane, with cattle and poultry in abundance. A petty trade for provisions is carried on with the natives by the occasional maritime visitors.

After the coast of Natal, of which little is known, occurs the country of the KAFFERS, or, more properly, Koussia. With this people European travellers have become acquainted in their expeditions from the colony of the Cape, and have found them a remarkably strong and well-made race, brave, not unacquainted with the arts of life, and much superior in appearance to the neighbouring African tribes.

## SOUTHERN AFRICA.

ALL the southern extremity of Africa, which, though seeming little more than a point in comparison with the broad part of the peninsula, spreads into an extent from east to west of nearly 550 miles, is occupied by the territory of the Dutch colony of the cape of Good Hope. This territory extends inland about 230 miles, and contains a great tract of country, thinly peopled, and for the most part uncultivated, and much diversified in soil and surface. Mountainous ridges running chiefly east and west in parallel ranges, overspread the whole; between which, in several parts, are high level plains, consisting of hard clay sprinkled with sand, and doomed to irremediable sterility. Many rivers cross these ridges at intervals, in their way to the sea; but of these the greater number lose their water in the dry season, and drought is the prevailing evil of the country. Where the streams are perennial there is a rich vegetation; and in no part of the world are there finer pastures, capable of rearing the domestic animals to the greatest bulk and fatness.

It is, perhaps, rather owing to the easier access of naturalists, than to any peculiarity in the soil and climate, that the Cape territory has of late years contributed more to enrich the catalogues and descriptions of botanists and zoologists than almost any other equal tract. With respect to the vegetable kingdom, its contributions have very much consisted of those succulent plants which nature has adapted to arid and stony regions, and also of the families of heaths and geraniums, which naturally clothe the sides of hills. Of the bulbous-rooted plants which spring in the marshy grounds at the foot of mountains, there is also a vast variety. These different sources have been so well explored, that the Cape plants constitute at present the chief

splendour of our green-houses. In their cultivated products the colonists have chiefly followed the European system of farming, and attended to the growth of corn, especially wheat, and the feeding of sheep and oxen. They have likewise planted vineyards, and with such success, that the choice wine called Constantia maintains a place among the most valued products of the grape.

The zoology of the country about the cape of Good Hope has afforded matter for much curious and entertaining description. The forests and wilds still remote from human culture are filled with beasts of prey and their game, and with those stately herbivorous quadrupeds, which pass their lives in tranquil security from all enemies but man. The lion, the most terrible of the carnivorous tribe in Africa, as the tiger is in Asia, here "makes the night hideous" by his tremendous roar, at which the draught cattle are represented as shrinking in convulsive tremors and cold sweats, and the dogs as cowering in silence round their masters. The elephant, the rhinoceros, and that rare and singular quadruped the camelopard, are inmates of the retired forests; and not unfrequently the wild buffalo starts from the reedy thicket upon the unsuspecting traveller, and with amazing strength and ferocity overthrows man and horse, destroying through mere wantonness of rage. Of the antelope tribe there are many species, some of singular elegance and agility. Their migrations from one district to another in search of pasture are in such vast flocks that the foremost are said to leave only a bare desert to the hindmost. The hippopotamus abounds in some of the rivers, and the ostrich is frequent on the sandy plains.

The mineralogy of these parts has been little examined; but the Copper mountains, between the 29th and 30th degrees of S. latitude, are known to yield great quantities of copper to a Kaffer tribe in the vicinity, who possess skill enough to smelt the ore.

The natives of this southern part of Africa are principally comprehended under the name of Hottentots, and are almost proverbially ranked among the lowest of the races of mankind in intellect and civilization. In form they are middle-sized

and slender, with remarkably small extremities. Their features are directly opposite to what we are accustomed to regard as beautiful and dignified. Their language is an inarticulate gabble, uttered with singular cluckings, like no other human speech. In indolence and improvidence they have the true savage character; and in beastliness of manners and filthiness nothing can surpass them. Yet they are a gentle and good-humoured race, cheerful and social, not devoid of ingenuity in the arts belonging to their condition, skilful herdsman, bold and adventurous hunters, amazingly agile when urged to exertion, faithful in service, though apt to return to their original savage freedom, to which they are radically attached.

The Hottentot tribes within the limits of the Dutch colony live nominally under the protection of the Dutch East-India Company; but by usurpations and oppressions are for the most part reduced to a state of slavery. Many have left their native districts, and retired to the hills and woods, where they pass a wretched and predatory life, mixed with the wild natives called Boshiesmen, and like them hunted down and shot without mercy by the Dutch settlers as noxious animals. These Boshiesmen (Men of the woods) are a remarkable race, of diminutive stature and deformed figures, denoting the scantiness of their subsistence, living in caves like beasts, and amusing themselves with carving on the rooks sketches of animals and other natural objects, some of which show a talent for drawing very extraordinary in their condition. The pastoral and independent Hottentots, who were once numerous within the bounds of the colony, are now scarcely to be met with.

Travellers have generally agreed in painting the Dutch farmer-colonists in very unpleasing colours. They are represented as gross, ignorant, sordid and unfeeling, cruel masters to man and beast, selfish and fraudulent, and void of all public spirit. They practise, however, a rude kind of hospitality to the few strangers who visit them, and are necessary to the colony on account of the supplies of corn and cattle which they send to the Cape. The Cape-town, situated at the head of Table bay, to the west of the extreme point of Africa, is the seat of government, and the principal place in the colony. It

is a handsome and tolerably populous town, furnished with a naval arsenal, and provided with every convenience for repairing ships and refreshing their crews. In time of peace the English India-ships, as well as those of other nations, generally take in provisions at the Cape in their outward voyages. The great bay called Simon's bay, to the south of the Cape-town, is a resort for shipping during a part of the year; and the bay of Saldanha, to the north, is occasionally frequented. The population of all the districts round the Cape is very thin and scattered; but there is no doubt that it might be greatly increased, and the products much augmented, in the hands of a liberal and enterprising nation.

The British have lately seized the Cape of Good Hope, and will probably hold possession of it in future. We may therefore expect that the southern part of Africa will be explored, and that authentic accounts of the face of the country, climate, soil, and productions will be published in due time.



## WESTERN COAST OF AFRICA.

ON proceeding northwards from the Cape of Good Hope, a line of country occurs for many degrees of latitude, of which very little is known to Europeans ; and it is not till about the 13th degree of S. latitude that a country commences, which, from its population and fertility, has obtained distinction in the history of Western Africa. This is a tract forming a wide curve or indentation in the coast, and marked by the mouths of several rivers, in which are contained the kingdoms of BENGUELA, ANGOLA, CONGO, and LOANGO, together occupying a space of about 9 degrees of coast, with an indefinite extent inland.

The general face of the country near the sea is low and flat, with a clayey or marshy soil, void of rock or stone ; there are, however, lofty mountains at a distance within land. The products are those usual within the tropics. The farinaceous esculents are millet, maize, cassava, yams, and potatoes : the sugarcane is also cultivated, with cotton, indigo, varieties of the palm, and fine fruits of many kinds. Mines of lead, iron, and copper, are worked in the upper country. The climate is excessively hot, and in many parts extremely unhealthy to strangers. Benguela, especially, lies under this imputation, and even its provisions are thought unwholesome to Europeans.

Of these countries, CONGO is the principal for extent and population, and has at times exercised a kind of dominion over the rest, but at the expense of frequent and bloody wars. The people are represented as having little of the negro feature, though perfectly black, with woolly hair. The government of all is despotic ; the religion idolatrous, with many inhuman superstitions ; and the manners generally savage and ferocious.

They are charged with cannibalism by the Roman catholic missionaries, who are not, however, to be implicitly credited in their narratives. The Portuguese early formed settlements in these parts, and converted the kings of Congo to their religion, which became widely diffused, with its usual concomitants of the overbearing influence and insolent intermeddling of priests and friars. They were, however, of some service to the natives in point of morals and civilization, and would have been of much more, had it not been for the many wars occasioned by the ambition of the Portuguese, and their encouragement of the slave trade.

Before we come to the modern centre of this disgraceful commerce, it may be proper to bestow some consideration upon it in a general view. It cannot be doubted that the traffic in human beings is of high antiquity in Africa, and that wars and accusations of imaginary crimes have been means at all times put in practice for obtaining subjects for this traffic; whilst in some of the most barbarous tribes the natural affections have been so cold as not to prevent fathers from selling their own children, and husbands their wives. Nor is there an African nation in which domestic slavery does not prevail. When the shores of this peninsula, therefore, were frequented by the European maritime states in order to procure human cargoes, they came to a known market, in which the commodity of slaves was as familiar as those of ivory and gold-dust. But the new and almost unlimited demand which they created for the supply of their colonies and plantations had its natural effect of proportionally enhancing the value of the article, and adding motives for those wars and nefarious practices by which slaves were to be procured; nor did they themselves scruple to seize by violence and fraud such as fell in their way unprotected. Every evil, therefore, attendant on an insecure and ferocious state of society has been augmented, the manners have been more brutalized, peaceable industry has been discouraged, population diminished, and a taste introduced for baneful superfluities, of which human flesh and blood has been the price. It may be added, that the conveyance of the wretched victims in chains across the sea, never more to behold their friends and

native country, and to wear out their lives in hard labour under the lash of unfeeling taskmasters, has been a dreadful aggravation of the evils of slavery.

Of Congo, the chief city is that named by the Portuguese St. Salvadore, not far from the great river of the country, the Zahir. It seems to have been a considerable place, exhibiting a degree of European magnificence. Its present state is little known.

LOANGO is inhabited by a people who are industrious, and possess several arts and manufactures. It exports elephants' teeth and various metals. Its capital is Bouali, called also Loango. The Portuguese are said to have been entirely expelled from this country. St. Paul de Loanda in Angola has been a city of note. From this district many slaves are exported by the Portuguese.

There are several independent tribes or nations further inland from the above-mentioned countries, which, in general, are less civilized as they are more distant from the coast. A native savage race widely spread through this part of Africa is that of the GIAGAS or JAGAS, much dreaded for their ferocity, and who at different times have overrun great part of the more civilized countries, and committed horrible devastation.

GUINEA. A few degrees to the north of the equator the African coast makes a great turn to the west, forming an extensive region well known by the name of Guinea. This tract has by the European traders been divided into several distinct coasts, each named after its principal commercial product.

That which first occurs on turning westward is denominated the SLAVE-COAST, being resorted to for no other merchandise than that of human beings; though that traffic is by no means peculiar to this part of Guinea. The kingdom of BENIN is accounted the principal state on the Slave-coast. It is extensive and populous, and inhabited by a gentle and good-tempered people, considerably civilized in their manners. The town of Benin is large and well-regulated, though only a collection of

earthen huts, stone being unknown in this country. The government is despotic; the religion idolatrous, with much abject superstition and priestcraft. Throughout Guinea it is a practice to adopt domestic or local deities, called fetishes, which are often mean and ridiculous objects, such as casually strike the mind of the worshipper. Notions of magic and witchcraft are universally prevalent, and are employed to aid the influence of the priests, and multiply the penalty of slavery.

There are several other subordinate kingdoms on the coast, of which that of WHIDAH or FIDAH, though small in extent, is distinguished for its populousness and civilization. The country is described as very fine. The soil is extremely fertile, and affords sustenance to a greater number of people than are almost any where assembled upon an equal compass of ground. The natives are remarkable for a ceremonious and humble civility, which has caused them to be compared to the Chinese. They are industrious and ingenious, and have carried agriculture and other necessary arts to a high degree of perfection. A singular feature in the superstition of Whidah is the snake-worship, founded on a profound veneration for those reptiles, one of which, as the head or representative of the class, has a temple, with a great establishment of priests, who practise innumerable frauds upon the credulous votaries. The former prosperity of this country has been greatly impaired through its invasion and conquest by the powerful king of DAHOMEY, sovereign of an inland nation more brave and ferocious in character than the people of the coast. His cruelties are represented as surpassing the usual measure of savage conquerors. It cannot be doubted that the knowledge of a profitable market for slaves has been one motive to his predatory enterprises. The slaves from Benin are termed Eboes, and are reckoned of a mild tractable disposition.

The GOLD-COAST succeeds, so named from the quantity of that metal brought down from the interior country, and employed as a medium of commerce. It is divided into several distinct states, some of which (an extraordinary circumstance in Africa) have a republican constitution. The trade of this

coast has been particularly tempting to European cupidity, as is denoted by the number of forts and factories of different nations established upon it. Of these the most numerous are the English and Dutch. The country is full of people, who, by their habits of trade, and long intercourse with foreigners, are become extremely dexterous in all the arts of deception. They are likewise a bold, brisk, and ingenious race, very skilful in several ornamental manufactures, especially those in which the precious metals are employed. They cultivate their lands in common, and always end their labour with music and dancing, to which last exercise all the negroes are passionately attached.

The slaves from this coast are called *Cormantees*, and are noted for impatience under hard usage, and a determinate spirit of revenge. The gold exported hence is either in the state of unequal lumps procured by digging into the soil, or of dust subsiding from the washed sands of the rivers. Every art is employed by the natives to adulterate it, and the negro craft is often too much for European science. A general remark may here be apposite—that from contemplating the negro tribes in their own country, no one could derive that opinion of their inferiority in point of understanding to other races of men in a similar state of civilization, which some reasoners have thought proper to inculcate. They display, indeed, a remarkable indifference of character, and are disposed to enjoy the passing moments without being disturbed with the thought of futurity.

The *IVORY COAST* is much less known than the two former by Europeans, who have no settlements upon it. The natives are a shy suspicious people, of a more disagreeable aspect than the other western negroes. The country is represented as being fertile and pleasant, varied with hill and dale, and well peopled. The name of this coast has been given to it in consequence of the great quantity of elephants' teeth which are brought down as an article of traffic. The animal is said to be exceedingly common in the interior country, and of a size superior to that of the African elephants in general. Gold and slaves are also

commodities of this country, together with strong cotton cloths, the manufacture of the natives.

Further westward is a tract of no great extent called the **GRAIN OR PEPPER COAST**, from a species of pepper named *Malaguetta*, which used to be its principal commercial product. The importation of the East Indian spices has, however, diminished the consumption of this aromatic, so that the coast is now chiefly frequented for its trade in slaves and ivory.

The coast which next succeeds has been called the country of **SIERRA LEONE**, a name given by the Portuguese to a chain of mountains much infested, it is said, by lions. This is an extensive tract, comprehending several nations little explored. The most powerful of these is the **FOULAHs**, a mahometan tribe, generally at war with their neighbours for the purpose of making slaves, whom they sell to the European traders. The coast also affords ivory, dying woods, the skins of wild beasts, and cotton cloths. An English settlement was lately formed in the bay of Sierra Leone, with the benevolent intention of civilizing the natives, and encouraging them to produce other commodities for traffic which might supersede the slave-trade; but it proved unsuccessful, and has at length been abandoned.

Northwards stretches the populous tract washed by the rivers Gambia and Senegal. As far as these have been navigated by Europeans, their banks have generally been found well cultivated and thickly inhabited; and a variety of distinct nations, differing in language and manners, has been discovered in their vicinity. One of the most widely diffused of these negro tribes is that of the **MANDINGOES**, who are represented as of a cheerful and social disposition, possessing the negro form and feature in perfection. The **YALOFFs** are a more warlike race, and, according to European ideas, handsomer. Another nation of **FOULAHs** near the Senegal bears marks of a Moorish derivation. The mahometan religion, mixed with some native superstitions, is general in these parts. These rivers and shores are frequented chiefly for the slave-trade; but the Senegal, on which the French have long held establish-

ments, affords a valuable article of commerce in the gum named from it, which is similar to gum-arabic, and exudes from a species of mimosa, forming woods in the sandy tracts to the north of the river.

Inland hence the country has been explored beyond the heads of the Senegal and Gambia, to the banks of the Joliba, supposed to be the same with the Niger, a large river flowing eastward. In this tract are both moorish and negro kingdoms, with populous towns ; but meanly built, and exhibiting a simple state of society. The native negroes are universally found to be a much gentler and better disposed people than those of the moorish origin and religion. In this direction lies the celebrated city of Tombuctoo, which has not been visited by any Europeans. It is known by report as the capital of this part of Africa, and the medium of commercial intercourse with the northern and eastern countries.

Northward of the mouth of the Senegal the coast becomes barren, and is inhabited only by wandering tribes of Arabs, as far as the frontiers of the kingdom or empire of Morocco.

## BARBARY STATES.

THE countries thus denominated occupy almost the whole of the northern border of Africa to the Egyptian frontier. This tract, the ancient Mauritania, Numidia, and Africa, was formerly celebrated for its fertility, and was the seat of several powerful states, among which was Carthage, long the dreaded rival of Rome. After various revolutions, it is now shared principally by four mahometan states, noted for their hostility to the christian name, which has displayed itself in a system of piracy, exercised chiefly in the Mediterranean sea against all the powers which do not purchase their forbearance by a disgraceful tribute. To this predatory system their natural means of thriving by agriculture and commerce have been in great measure sacrificed; yet they still may be ranked among the most powerful states of the African continent, and as those which exert the greatest influence over the policy of Europe.

## MOROCCO.

THE united kingdoms of Morocco and Fez, constituting the empire of Morocco, extend from the western coast of Africa, about the 28th degree of N. latitude, to the boundary of Algiers on the Mediterranean, in N. latitude 35 or 36 degrees. Internally the ridges of mount Atlas separate this empire from Darah and Sejelmissa. The heat of the climate is tempered by breezes from the lofty summits of Atlas, clad in perpetual snow. The mountainous districts are wild and



steril ; and there are extensive dry heaths unfit for cultivation ; but many parts of the country are pleasant and fertile, and Morocco is accounted one of the healthiest of the African states. Many streams, some of them of considerable magnitude, descend from the chain of Atlas, and discharge themselves either into the Atlantic ocean or the Mediterranean ; but their mouths are so choaked with sand that they afford no good harbours. Hence Morocco is of small account as a maritime state.

The native and the cultivated products of Barbary partake both of the hot and the temperate climates. Grain of all kinds, oil, wine, fruits, sugar, cotton, silk, indigo, and drugs, are produced in the different soils and situations. The domestic animals are the same with those of Europe, with the addition of the camel. The breed of horses is small, but elegant and swift ; they approach the Arabian in qualities, and are much prized under the name of barbs. Game is very plentiful, and beasts of prey are common among the recesses of the mountains. Minerals abound in the hilly region, and some mines are wrought, particularly of copper.

Of the inhabitants of Morocco, the Berebers (whence is derived the name of Barbary) are a wild unsubdued race, the descendants of the ancient people of Mauritania, occupying the fastnesses of the mountains. The Arabs are a wandering tribe, who roam from place to place with their flocks and herds, and raise grain on the most fruitful spots : some of them, however, are more addicted to plunder than to the exertions of industry. They pay a tribute to the emperor, but are governed by their own elective shieks. The inhabitants of the towns are Moors, chiefly the descendants of those who were expelled from Spain ; civilized to a certain degree, and commercial, but of bad reputation for fraud and avarice. Many Jews and some renegadoes also belong to the trading class.

The sovereigns of Morocco claim descent from Mahomet, and their proper title is that of sheref. In no country in the world has tyranny assumed a more savage and terrific aspect than in the persons of some of the emperors of Morocco ; and frequent and bloody civil wars attest that uncertainty of suc-

cession and want of domestic union which scarcely ever fail to accompany the despotism and polygamy of the mahometan princes. Ignorance, pride, and brutal manners, characterize both the court and the people. Strangers who are shipwrecked on the coast meet with the most inhospitable treatment and are generally doomed to slavery; and the communication between one place and another in the interior is full of danger and difficulty.

Morocco, the capital of the empire, is an inland town, situated in a fertile plain, not far from the main ridge of Atlas. It is of considerable extent and strongly walled. The principal edifices are the royal palace and the mosques. The private buildings are generally mean and out of repair; and signs of decay are manifest in this city. The nearest port to it is Mogadore, an open road on the Atlantic, considerably frequented by European vessels. Fez, the capital of the kingdom of that name, is described by the early mahometan writers as one of the greatest and most magnificent cities in the world, the seat of learning, arts, and politeness. It has since partaken of the declension which seems general in this empire. Mequinez is reckoned the second city of Fez, and was once the royal residence: both this and Fez are inland towns. The principal place on the coast is Tetuan, on the Mediterranean side of the straits of Gibraltar. Its harbour is only an open road; but the town is well situated, and its inhabitants carry on a considerable trade with the garrison of Gibraltar. Tangier also shares in the export of provisions to Europe. From Sallee, a small port on the Atlantic, a few armed rovers pursue the piratical trade. Ceuta, opposite to Gibraltar on the Barbary side, is a fortified town held by the Spaniards, who thus give the example (of which, in their own case, they so much complain) of a fortress possessed by a foreign and hostile power on the territory of another nation.

Dependant on the empire of Morocco is the kingdom of TAFILET, a slip of country bordering on the desert, and in great measure barren and uncultivated. The town of the

same name, situated far inland, is a place of intercourse between the merchants of Barbary and those of interior Africa.

The commodities exported from Morocco are principally corn, wool, hides, dressed leather called Morocco leather, dates, honey, wax, almonds, raisins, gum-arabic, elephants' teeth, ostrich feathers, tin, copper, and fine mats.

## ALGIERS.

THIS country, which is reckoned the chief of the Piratical States, stretches along the Barbary coast from the borders of Morocco to those of Tunis, a space of about 460 miles; and is bounded by the ridge of Atlas to the south. The climate near the coast is temperately warm, and the soil mostly fertile; but internally there is much steril and arid land, subject to excessive heat and drought. Several rivers flow from the high country to the sea, of which the principal is the Shellif. The products are similar to those of Morocco; and from the prevalent fertility of the land might afford a large surplus for exportation, if agriculture and commerce were encouraged as much as piracy. Corn, oil, cattle, wool and skins are occasionally exported.

The population of Algiers consists of nearly the same different classes of inhabitants as that of Morocco. There are, besides, many Turks, especially in the army; for this country was once a conquest of the Ottoman Porte, on which power it is still nominally dependant. The government is military, being administered by a dey, who is elected by the whole body of the army, and confirmed by the Porte. The elections are tumultuary and often bloody, and depositions are frequent. The Turkish language is employed in all legal and political transactions, but a corrupt Arabic is the common speech; and the inhabitants of the coast, in their commerce with the Europeans, use that jargon of European tongues called lingua

**France.** The religion is mahometan, with many added superstitions.

The character of the nation is ferocious and predatory, and no name is more dreaded in the Levant seas than the Algerine. They have constantly a number of corsairs well armed and manned out upon cruises, and make prizes of the vessels of all christian nations who are not their tributaries, or with whom they can venture to quarrel. It is highly to the disgrace of the Maritime European powers, that, instead of uniting to destroy this nest of pirates, they make separate treaties with them, and even furnish them with cannon and ammunition by way of present or tribute. At different times they have, indeed, been severely chastised; but on the other hand they have often resisted formidable attacks, and obliged the assailants to retire with loss and disgrace.

The city of Algiers, properly called Al Jezeir, is situated on the sea-coast, gradually rising from the shore, so as to afford a fine prospect of all its buildings. It is of no great compass, and meanly fortified on the land side; but its harbour, which is naturally only an open road, is secured by a mole and very strong fortifications. The city is reckoned to contain 100000 inhabitants, who are a mixture of various nations and religions. Many christian slaves are constantly employed on the works, and the Europeans in amity with the state have their consuls and residents. Renegadoes are likewise numerous. The dey's palace, the mosques, barracks, and public baths, are the most conspicuous buildings. The surrounding territory is fertile, and ornamented with country-houses and gardens; nor is any thing wanting but a better people and government to render Algiers a delightful abode.

The capital of the western government of this state is Oran, a well-fortified town, but declined from its former splendour. Tremecen or Tlemsen was once the capital of a separate kingdom of that name, now united to Algiers. Bona, near the eastern border, is a sea-port in a fertile country, the products of which are exported from it. Constantina, now Cusantin, an inland city, the capital of the eastern province, is chiefly remarkable for its remains of ancient magnificence.

Several manufactures of silk, cotton, linen, wool, and leather, are established in the different towns of Algiers; but the nature of the government is adverse to their prosperity, and they scarcely supply the home consumption.

## TUNIS.

TUNIS is the central state of northern Africa, lying upon the Mediterranean between Algiers and Tripoli. The greater part of it runs north and south, the African continent reaching its most northern point in this country, from which it turns suddenly southwards on the side of Tripoli. The extent of the kingdom of Tunis is computed at about 220 miles by 170. A chain of mountains, which may be regarded as a branch of Atlas, runs through it from south-west to north-east, and terminates at cape Bon. Of its rivers the principal is the Mejerda, the Bagrada of antiquity. In the southern part there is a considerable lake, called by the ancients Tritonia Palus.

The country of Tunis is ennobled from having been the seat of Carthage, and it seems still to retain a portion of the spirit of that celebrated republic, being the most commercial of all the Barbary states. It is likewise accounted the most polite and civilized; and christian slaves are treated in it with more humanity than in the others. It possesses a large proportion of fertile territory, the cultivation of which, through a late more enlightened policy, is encouraged in preference to the fitting out of corsairs. The latter business, however, is not entirely renounced.

The inhabitants of Tunis consist of a similar mixture of different nations and religions with that in Algiers; but there are more resident christians, as merchants, and as the agents of their respective states. The government is a despotism under an hereditary bey. The Ottoman Porte has a resident bashaw; but he is without power, and presents only an image of the subjection in which Tunis was formerly held by that court.

The city of Tunis is the capital of the kingdom, and residence of the bey. It is situated on a gulf, and defended towards the sea by strong castles. The inhabitants are reckoned at 50000, many of whom are employed in the linen and woollen manufactures. The ruins of Carthage are at a small distance from this city. Biserta, formerly one of the capital cities of northern Africa, is a sea-port to the west of Tunis. It is now the chief place of export for the corn grown in the country, of which, in fruitful years, a large quantity is purchased for the European states on the Mediterranean. Susa, to the south of Tunis, is a flourishing place of trade, noted for exporting the best oil produced in this kingdom. Kayrwan, or Carvan, formerly the metropolis of Arabian Africa, and the seat of the Fatemite caliphs, before their removal to Egypt, is still a considerable town, famous for a magnificent mosque, and for reputed sanctity; which causes it to be chosen as the burial-place of the beys and other persons of distinction. Its inhabitants are much employed in the dressing of leather.

Beside corn and oil, the kingdom of Tunis exports a great quantity of wool, hides raw and dressed, excellent soap, wax, honey, sponge, archil, scarlet, caps, ivory, gold-dust and ostrich feathers; which latter articles they receive from the interior of Africa. They import a large quantity of foreign commodities and manufactured goods, of which many are English, procured through the medium of Leghorn.

## TRIPOLI.

THE most eastern of the Barbary states is the kingdom (so called) of Tripoli, which extends from the confines of Tunis to those of Barca, or, as some reckon, to those of Egypt; but a great part of the eastern coast is desert, and scarcely belongs to any government. It is in general an arid and sterile tract, thinly peopled, and yet scarcely producing a sufficiency of sustenance for those who inhabit it. The date-palm is the principal resource in the dry and sandy soils, which, without this valuable gift of nature, must be left

desolate. The people of the coast, like those in the other parts of Barbary, are a mixed race, subsisting by piracy and commerce. Those of the interior are Arabs, either fixed or wandering, of ferocious manners, and addicted to robbery and pillage. Tripoli is more effectually under the dominion of the Porte than the other states, and its bey takes the title and exercises the functions of a Turkish bashaw. The Arabs are often in a state of insurrection, and their tribute cannot be levied without force of arms.

The city of Tripoli, the capital of the country, though much declined from the opulence and splendour which once distinguished it, is still a populous place. It is meanly built, and labours under the disadvantages of want of water, and a barren circumjacent district. It has a considerable linen manufacture, and its port is much frequented by corsairs of its own and other countries. No other towns of consequence remain on this coast, though formerly the district of Cyrenaica, now Mesrata, was distinguished by the appellation of Pentapolis, from its five cities; and even the torrid coast of Barca was not destitute of places of commerce.

The gulf of Sidra, the ancient Greater Syrtis, forms a natural separation on the coast between Tripoli and BARCA. The latter region is strongly characterized by the name given to it by its Arabian inhabitants of the Desert of Whirlwinds. Here the renowned temple of Jupiter Ammon stood, on an insulated spot of fertility in the midst of the waste. Such spots have acquired the technical name of oases. FEZZAN is a large district of a similar kind, directly south of the gulf of Sidra. BILEDULGERID, or the Country of Dates, SEJELMISSA, and other tracts bordering on the desert, form a line of scattered population to the south of the Barbary states. The ancient Numidians, or African Nomades, wandered over these extensive wilds; and the nature of the country still enjoins a similar mode of life on its inhabitants. That accurate traveller, Dr. Shaw, says that the description which Virgil has given of the manner of living and encamping of African herdsmen, is to this day as justly applied to the modern Bedowceens as when it was drawn.

## ISLANDS OF AFRICA.

**MADAGASCAR.** This island, situated off the south-eastern coast of Africa, is one of the largest known; being about 900 English miles in length, with a medial breadth of 250. It lies between the 12th and 25th degrees of S. latitude, and therefore by climate belongs to the hottest regions of the globe. It is divided by a chain of mountains running in the direction of its whole length, but approaching nearest to the eastern coast. Some of these are very lofty, and volcanic appearances are frequent among them. Immense forests clothe their sides, and rivers flow from them to all the surrounding coast.

Madagascar contains a great proportion of fertile land, and abounds in products of use and curiosity. There are scarcely any of the tropical vegetables which either do not grow here spontaneously, or may not be successfully cultivated. Of domestic animals, horned cattle and sheep are abundant, and there are none of the formidable beasts of prey to limit their increase. Rich minerals are met with in the hilly parts, among which are different kinds of gold ore, pure rock crystal, and various precious stones.

The natives are generally tall and strong. They are of different origins, some being tawny and copper-coloured, others of the negro colour and feature. The use of the Arabic characters by the men of learning, and some traces of the mahometan religion, denote a former intercourse with the Arabs, who made so many settlements in eastern Africa. Other circumstances of custom and tradition seem to point out a Hindoo origin. The blacks are probably the most ancient people of the island. The different districts are ruled by chiefs, of limited and precarious authority; and the practice of building all their



villages upon eminences, and surrounding them with palisades and earthen parapets, marks out a state of mutual hostility.

The European nation which has principally aimed at making settlements and conquests in this island is the French; but their attempts have been thwarted by frequent quarrels with the natives. They possess, however, a post called Fort Dauphin, at the south-eastern extremity of the island, from which they supply the Isle of France with provisions. This latter island, and another in its vicinity, may therefore be properly noticed in connection with Madagascar.

The ISLE OF France, otherwise called MAURITIUS, and the ISLE OF BOURBON, lately named RE-UNION, are situated at some distance to the east of Madagascar, in the track of the ships to India; on which account chiefly they have been occupied by the French. They are of inconsiderable magnitude, and not very fertile. The Isle of France possesses a good harbour, which renders it important as a place of call on the voyage to and from India, and as a station for privateers and cruisers in time of war. It is well fortified, and carries on a considerable traffic. The Isle of Bourbon is larger and better cultivated than the other and produces sugar-cane and coffee. An attempt has been made to introduce into it the clove and nutmeg trees; but though they have thriven in some measure, their product is inferior in quality to that of the Dutch Spice Islands. Both these isles show marks of a volcanic origin; and that of Bourbon has an existing volcano, of which the eruptions are almost continual. On a little uninhabited island named SEYCHELLES, to the north of these, the French made a small establishment for the cultivation of the clove and nutmeg.

Between the northern extremity of Madagascar and the African coast lies a group of four islands called the COMORO. These are governed by native chiefs, pagan and mahometan, tributary to the Portuguese, with whom, at Mozambic, they carry on some commerce. They are fertile in the productions of the tropics. One of them, named Hinzuan or Johanna,

has a commodious harbour, and is sometimes visited by ships bound to India, for the refreshment which it affords.

An island on the other side of Africa, also claiming notice from its connection with the East India trade, is that of **St. HELENA**. It lies far out at sea, under about the 16th degree of S. latitude; and is such a mere speck in the boundless ocean, that ships often miss it. It is mountainous, but tolerably fertile when not visited by the long droughts, which sometimes occur. There is only one harbour, which is of difficult access and easy defence. The English have occupied this island for about two centuries, and keep upon it a small garrison. It is found useful as a place of call and rendezvous of the East India ships, particularly in time of war, when advices and orders are sent thither for the direction of homeward bound vessels. The uninhabited Isle of Ascension, situated some degrees to the north-west of St. Helena, is occasionally visited by shipping, for the refreshments of turtle and sea-fowl.

At some distance to the west of Cape Verd, between about the 15th and 17th degrees of N. latitude, lies a cluster called the **CAPE VERD ISLANDS**, about ten in number, possessed by the Portuguese. Of these the principal, and the seat of government, is St. Jago, which has a harbour called Port Praya, capable of receiving a great number of ships. These islands are reckoned unhealthy, and their soil is for the most part stony and barren: some of them, however, yield the tropical products in considerable plenty, and abound in goats, poultry, and other articles of food. But the product for which they are chiefly frequented by foreign shipping is salt, formed naturally by evaporation from the sea water, and excellent for the use of the fisheries. The island from which the greatest quantity of salt is procured is that of May or Mayo, where, in the proper season, ships may be loaded with this commodity at no other trouble than raking it from the ponds in which it granulates. The inhabitants of the Cape Verd islands are chiefly negroes and mulattoes. They grow a good deal of cotton, which they manufacture into strong coarse cloths.

THE CANARY ISLES, anciently named the Fortunate Islands, lie nearer to the African coast than the preceding, about the 28th degree of N. latitude. Seven of these are inhabited, and afford wheat and barley, sugar, wine, fruits, and silk. The most remarkable of them is Teneriffe, famous for its lofty mountain or peak, which ranks among the highest measured summits, and is visible to a vast distance at sea. It is covered with snow during a great part of the year, and its top is always extremely cold. It is manifestly volcanic, and has a crater, from which smoke issues at intervals, but without flame or lava. This island, and that of Palma, are celebrated for their wine. The capital of the Canaries is the town of Palma, in the island properly called Canary. These islands belong to the crown of Spain. Their collective inhabitants are estimated at 140000, of whom nearly half reside in Teneriffe. This population is a proof that their soil and climate have not been extolled without reason. One of the smallest, called Ferro, has been chosen by some geographers for the first meridian.

THE MADEIRA ISLANDS lie nearly due north of the Canaries, about latitude 33°. One of these only, called Madeira by distinction, is considerable. This is a fine island, rising in the centre into high mountains, and cultivated and inhabited only to a small distance from the sea-coast. Its temperature is accounted the most equable, and the most salutary to the human constitution, that exists in any known part of the globe. The great product of the island is a wine in high esteem for its quality of bearing transportation to the hottest climates, and being even improved by the voyage. It is strong-bodied, and particularly useful as a stomachic. The greatest part of the vintage is contracted for by the English and Irish merchants, many of whom reside in the capital, Funchal. The island is reckoned to contain 64000 inhabitants. It is under the dominion of Portugal. Outward-bound ships to the East and West Indies frequently call here to take in wine and fresh provisions.

A group of islands which lies at too great a distance from either Europe or Africa to be reckoned as belonging to those quarters of the world, yet proper to be mentioned in connection with those last treated of, is that of the AZORES, or WESTERN ISLANDS. They are situated due west from the coast of Portugal, about the 38th or 39th degree of N. latitude, and were first discovered by the Portuguese in the middle of the 15th century. They were colonized by Flemings, but have always been subject to the crown of Portugal. They are six in number, of which the principal is Tercera. One of them, named, Pico, has a peak scarcely inferior in height to that of Teneriffe. The isle of Fayal has a fine harbour, with a town of 5000 inhabitants. The Azores in general are mountainous, and subject to earthquakes and tempestuous winds; but the climate is fine, and the land in many parts fertile, yielding the products of the southern part of the temperate zone, such as corn, wine, and fruits. One of them, named St. Michael, is noted for small oranges, of remarkable sweetness and flavour.

## AMERICA.

OF all the additions which modern art and science have made to the stock of human knowledge possessed by the ancients, that of a new quarter of the world, superior in extent and in variety of products to any one of the former, may be regarded as the most considerable. This discovery, made at the close of the 15th century, has already produced many important consequences with respect to the condition and policy of the most civilized nations of the world; and these consequences are likely to become more and more interesting to every future age.

America is in no part joined by land to the old continent, though its north-western point nearly approaches the north-eastern extremity of Asia. Regarding Greenland as a part of America, it extends further towards the north pole than Europe or Asia; whilst its southern extremity pushes several degrees further into the southern hemisphere than the cape of Good Hope in Africa. Its breadth, however, is in no part nearly equal to that of Europe and Asia united. Though it forms properly but one continent, yet nature has made such a marked division between its northern and southern portions, that all geographers have been obliged to consider them as distinct regions. The isthmus of Darien is with respect to them exactly what that of Suez is to Africa and Arabia; and the peninsula of South America bears a remarkable resemblance in shape to that of Africa. The northern portion will first engage our attention, and it will be proper to begin with considering it as a whole.

## NORTH AMERICA.

EXCLUSIVELY of Greenland, the continuity of which with the rest is not ascertained, North America extends from about the 8th to the 70th degree of N. latitude. Its breadth is greatest towards the northern extremity, where it may be estimated at about 3300 statute miles: thence it goes diminishing gradually to the 30th degree of latitude, whence it contracts rapidly into a kind of neck, finally terminating in the narrow isthmus of Darien, at the bay of Panama.

This great mass of land is broken by some bays or seas which penetrate it deeply, and by a number of lakes, some of them among the largest in the world. In the north, Davis's strait, expanding into Baffin's bay, separates it from Greenland. From the entrance of Davis's strait a channel called Hudson's strait leads into the spacious Hudson's bay, or rather sea, occupying, with its sounds and inlets, a space fifteen degrees in length, and of considerable breadth. At the most eastern part, opposite the island of Newfoundland, the gulf of St. Lawrence separates Labrador from New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, and gives a wide estuary to the river St. Lawrence. The gulf of Mexico in the south causes that sudden contraction of the continent which has been above mentioned. On the opposite side, the gulf of California, an inlet from the Pacific ocean, forms the peninsula called California.

The chain of great lakes may be reckoned to begin in the north with the Slave lake, and thence in a south-eastern direction to proceed by lake Winnipeg to the cluster of lakes making a separation between Canada and the territory of the United States, and consisting of the vast conjoined expanses of water called lakes Superior, Huron, and Michigan, and the communi-

cating lakes of Erie and Ontario. Some of these almost deserve the appellation of inland seas, but their waters are fresh.

The mountains of North America are not upon a scale of elevation correspondent to the grand features of nature in other respects; nor can the country in a general view be termed mountainous. In some parts there are plains of great extent. As far as we may trust the rough sketch of a country, which is little explored, we may conceive a ridge of prodigious length, called in some of its parts the Stony Mountains, running parallel to the shore of the Pacific ocean, from the north-western bounds of the American continent to the confines of New Mexico. The western coast within these limits, where viewed from the sea, has presented the appearance of a rugged alpine tract; and it is conjectured that the loftiest mountains in North America probably exist in this line of country. On the north-east, Greenland, Labrador, and the borders of Hudson's bay, exhibit numerous snow-clad summits, or black naked peaks; and a ridge may be traced running inland from the Labrador coast, and separating the streams which fall into Hudson's bay from those which join the river St. Lawrence. Parallel to the eastern coast, from New Brunswick to Georgia, at a considerable distance inland, runs the famous Apalachian chain, now becoming accurately traced on account of the settlement of the country through which it takes its course. Its height is not proportional to its extent. It is remarkable for its collateral ridges, which will be particularly noticed in the description of the territory of the United States. California, Mexico, Veragua, and the isthmus of Darien, may be regarded as mountainous tracts.

The rivers of North America are worthy of the magnitude of its other features: those only will be here noticed which, from their length of course, may be reckoned to belong to the country at large, not to a particular territory.

In the wild and obscure regions of the north the river Unjiga, rising near the western coast, and penetrating the ridge of the Stony Mountains, bends first to the north-east, and then due north to the Slave-lake, which it crosses: issuing thence under the name of Mackenzie's river, it takes its course to the Arctic sea, which has been discovered bounding America in that part,

about the 70th degree of latitude. The Saskashawin, springing from the eastern side of the Stony Mountains, flows eastward to lake Winnipeg, and, under the name of Nelson's river, finishes its course in Hudson's bay.

Better known than these streams of the wilderness is the noble river St. Lawrence, which bears that name only from lake Ontario to the Atlantic ocean; though, by analogy, it might claim its origin in some of the streams flowing into Ontario, or the connected lakes. It takes a direct course to the north-east, and issues by an estuary 90 miles in breadth into the gulf of St. Lawrence, to which it gives name. With the intervention of some rapids, it is navigable from lake Ontario to the ocean, a distance of about 740 miles, and will admit ships of any size to Quebec, a distance of 400 miles.

The great central river of North America is the Mississippi, the name of which in the language of the natives bears the signification of the Great Father of Rivers. It has been traced to some small lakes about latitude  $47^{\circ}$ , whence it flows southwards, in a very winding channel, but with no wide deviations, into the gulf of Mexico in latitude  $29^{\circ}$ . It receives many streams both from the east and the west. The principal rivers from the east are the Illinois, and the beautiful and clear Ohio; and from the west the Missouri, which makes its junction about latitude  $38\frac{1}{2}$  degrees. The Mississippi is subject to great spring floods, at which times its current is so strong that it can with difficulty be ascended. It is a singular circumstance, that much of its inundating water never returns into its bed, but finds its way to the sea through distinct outlets. The length of this mighty river, according to the direction of its course, probably exceeds 2000 miles; and its depth is uncommonly great.\*

The river Missouri, usually accounted a tributary of the Mississippi, is in fact the principal stream. It is longer, broader, and deeper than the Mississippi, before their confluence. Its origin is supposed to be in the great western chain of mountains, 600 miles more remote than the sources of the Mississippi. Mr.

\* For an interesting description of the Mississippi, see a paper by Mr. Dunbar, in the transactions of the American Philosophical Society, Vol. VI, Part I.



Jefferson, the president of the United States, has sent persons to explore this river and the adjacent country.

Of the climate of a tract extending from the frigid zone to within a few degrees of the equator, no precise description can be generally applicable. It is a common remark that the extremes both of cold and heat are greater in North America than in the same latitudes on the old continent; but an exception seems necessary for the eastern part of Asia, in which intense cold, at least, descends as far south as in America. Sudden and great variations of temperature, and quick changes of all kinds in the weather, appear more peculiarly characteristic of the climate of North America, especially on the eastern coast; and these vicissitudes are found very trying to the human constitution; so that this country does not rank among those which are most favourable to health.

When North America was first visited by Europeans, it might be regarded, exclusively of Mexico, as one immense forest inhabited by wild animals, and by a great number of savage tribes, who subsisted by hunting and fishing. Many of the vegetables and animals were found to be of different species from those of the old world. A vast variety of the pine genus, with other evergreens, composed a large share of the forests, and gave a dark and gloomy hue to the face of the country. The larger animals of chase were the black bear, the musk ox, the buffalo, the moose or elk, and some other species of deer; the smaller kinds, valued chiefly for their fur, were extremely numerous, as they continue to be where man has not encroached upon their haunts. The beaver, the racoon, varieties of foxes, many species of the weasel genus, innumerable squirrels, the glutton, the porcupine, several beasts of prey of the cat kind, furnished objects for all the sagacity and activity of the hunter.

The human native of North America, as he then appeared, and as he still exists in his wild domain, bears in his person and manners tokens of a peculiar race, not less distinctive than those of the animals and vegetables by which he is surrounded. The native Americans (or Indians, as they are improperly called) are distinguished by a red or copper hue, turned into tawny

by the action of the sun and air, which differs little in intensity in the different latitudes. Their eyes are small and dark; their hair is black, thick, and lank; the form of their face is round, with a small forehead, and high cheek bones; their bodies are generally muscular, and their limbs well shaped. Their senses are extremely acute, and their powers of enduring hunger, cold, and fatigue, very extraordinary. It is thought by some that they have less bodily sensibility than other men, and that their wonderful apathy under extreme torture is partly owing to bluntness of nervous sensation. A similar apathy is said to prevail in their mental constitution; whence they are little moved by the common incidents and casualties of life, and require strong motives to rouse them. But this temperament of body and mind is probably occasioned by education and habit. They are grave and sedate in demeanour, great observers of decorum, attentive hearers, and wary speakers. Eloquence is a common and esteemed faculty among them: it is of a very figurative kind, and somewhat prolix. They are steady in their attachments, and eternal in their resentments. Every thing admitted into their minds seems engraven in indelible characters. The women, as usual in savage life, are treated as inferiors and slaves to the men, and put to all laborious offices. Great respect is usually paid to old age, and the councils of seniors are in most tribes invested with the sovereign authority. There are, however, chiefs or sachems, generally elected, but in some instances hereditary. These are the captains in war, when their power is most considerable: in time of peace little of the control of government exists.

Hunting and war are the great business of their lives, and both are undertaken with many emblematic ceremonies and superstitious rites. In both they are indefatigable and full of stratagems, patiently lying in wait for their prey for days and weeks. Of all enemies they are the most dreadful, massacring, without pity, men, women, and children, or reserving their prisoners for a still more shocking fate. It is their custom to bring the captive warriors to the villages, where, if adopted by some individuals who have lost their own relations in the war, they become members of the nation; but, if not adopted, they

are put to death, after the infliction of a series of the most exquisite tortures that diabolical cruelty and revenge ever suggested to the human heart. To endure these tortures without a complaint, and even to provoke them, is the greatest glory of a captive warrior. The Indians are hospitable to strangers in the highest degree, courteous and forbearing, displaying a strong sense of natural justice, and generally attentive to the voice of reason.

In religion they have some sublime ideas of the great father of spirits, but mingled with much gross and absurd superstition. They adopt for themselves manitous, a sort of personal deities (like the Negro fetishes) from any object that takes their fancy, and consult them on all occasions with many ridiculous ceremonies.

Several languages, some of which are said to be radically different, prevail among the Indians. Of these the Algonkin is the most widely diffused. It is reckoned softer and more elegant than the Huron, which, however, excels it in copiousness and energy. The Siouse is a third original language. All these languages have a multiplicity of dialects. The art of writing is unknown in all, and the memory of past events is preserved by means of artificial associations.

Such were the tribes of Indians which occupied the countries obtained by conquest or treaty by the European settlers on the Eastern coast of North America, and which have gradually receded as they advanced, greatly diminished, and some totally extirpated, by the arms, and by the spirituous liquors and diseases of their invaders. Though they are still pretty numerous towards the central and southern parts, yet in process of time they must give way to the white people, who are continually moving westwards, and breaking up their hunting-grounds by new settlements.

The inhabitants of the furthest north, called Eskimos or Iskimos, are a totally different race, similar to the Samoieds of Asia, whence they probably originate. They are regarded with inveterate hatred by the proper American savages, who kill them whenever they meet them. The western coasts, as far

as they have been explored, are peopled by tribes of different manners and appearance, living mostly upon fish.

This sketch may suffice for the very extensive but little interesting countries which may be termed Savage America. We shall now, beginning from the furthest inhabited land on the north, take a particular survey of this continent, as forming part of the possessions of European powers, or as the seat of a new power, founded on European civilization and policy.

## GREENLAND.

IT has already been observed, that it is uncertain whether this region is joined to the American continent, or separated from it by a strait: but on either supposition it must be adjudged to this quarter of the globe. It may seem extraordinary that this desolate and uninviting country should have been the first part of the new world discovered and settled by Europeans; but its short distance from Iceland which was then possessed by an enterprising and maritime people, will account for the circumstance. In the 10th century a Norwegian adventurer obliged to flee from his own country, took refuge on the coast of East Greenland, whither he was followed by many of his countrymen. The name which they gave to it, being the same in sound and import with its English name, indicates that it appeared a land of verdure to men who were accustomed to northern sterility.

Under the appellation of Greenland is comprehended an angular tract, the point of which, named Cape Farewell, lies in the 60th degree of N. latitude. Its two sides, eastern and western, extend to an indeterminate distance northwards, and little more than the coasts has ever been explored. The land rises into high rugged peaks, either black and naked, or incrustured with ice and snow. In the southern parts there is a scanty vegetation of stunted trees and shrubs, with grass and a few herbaceous plants in the valleys. The quadrupeds are reindeer, dogs resembling wolves, arctic foxes, white hares, polar bears, and wolverenes. Birds of prey and sea-fowl are numerous, and the shores are frequented by the walrus and several species of seals. These and fish are the riches of the country, and the chief sustenance of the poor natives.

The Greenlanders are a branch of the Samoieds or Eskimos, of small stature, ignorant, superstitious and squalid, but harmless, and ingenious in the construction of their canoes and fishing utensils. In their light skiffs, made of skins extended by ribs and covered with a membrane which draws close about their bodies, furnished with nicely constructed dart and line, and clothed in water-proof garments, they will paddle singly to the greatest monsters of the deep, attack, and generally succeed in making them their prey. This life of hardship, however, keeps their numbers small; and either the perils of the ocean, or the inclemencies of the climate, bring many to an untimely end.

The Norwegian colony in East Greenland, after flourishing so much as to possess churches and monasteries, and even a cathedral and succession of bishops, finally sunk under famine and disease, and left no traces of its existence. Navigators and whale-fishers made occasional visits to the western coasts, and the Danes established a commerce with the natives; but no new attempts were made to colonize. At length a Lutheran clergyman of Norway, named Egede, inspired by an ardent zeal for communicating the benefits of the christian religion and of civilization to this deserted country, repaired in 1721 to the western coast with a few settlers, and employed many years in his pious labours. The cause was taken up by the society of Hernhuters, or Moravians, with additional success, and several settlements have been formed by them, and peopled with converted natives, whose condition has been greatly improved by their efforts. These still subsist; but without the continued fostering care and liberal contributions of the missionary societies in Europe, it is not likely that they can withstand the desolating influence of such a rigorous climate and steril soil.

More connected with Greenland than with any other country is the large island, or group of islands, called SPITZ-BERGEN, lying directly north from the North cape in Norway, from latitude  $76^{\circ} 30'$  to  $80^{\circ}$ . It is a land of wintry horror and desolation, where nature scarcely lives, and with which man could have no concern, if he were not carried to its shores in pursuit of whales and other fish. The coast is black, rugged,

and deeply indented, with vast naked mountains of granite behind. A few low herbs are found in the shallow soil at the foot of the hills. Rein-deer, foxes, and polar bears are the only terrestrial inhabitants. Seals frequent the shores in great numbers, and whales abound in the adjacent seas.

Two attempts were made by the Dutch to leave men on Spitzbergen during the winter, but they all perished by the scurvy. Eight Englishmen left by accident, however, all survived; and four Russians under like circumstances inhabited the country several years. Since that time it is said that the Russians make a frequent practice of sending parties to winter here, who employ themselves in the capture of the beluga, or white whale, and of seals.

## BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

A VERY extensive tract of country in this continent still remains under the British dominion, though its northern situation renders its value comparatively small. The claims of England seem to comprehend all the country between Hudson's bay and strait, the Atlantic ocean, and the great chain of eastern lakes, with an indefinite extent westwards; but the parts actually occupied are Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and the islands of Cape Breton and Newfoundland.

CANADA, the principal of these districts, beginning from the gulf of St. Lawrence, comprehends a tract on both sides of the river St. Lawrence, but chiefly on the north side, up to lake Ontario; then, following the northern bank of the group of connected lakes, it runs westward to an indefinite distance. On the southern side it touches on several of the United States; on the northern, upon the unoccupied country by some called New Britain. It is divided into two provinces, the Upper and the Lower, which are commonly called Upper Canada and Lower Canada; the former lying chiefly upon the lakes, the latter upon the river St. Lawrence.

Canada lies for the most part between the 44th and 50th degrees of latitude. Summer is warm, and winter is extremely cold. In summer the mercury in Fahrenheit's thermometer sometimes rises above 90°, and in winter descends 30° or 40° below 0. The face of the country is in general hilly; and the uncleared parts are covered with the aboriginal forests so universal in the American landscape. There are, however, verdant meadows and beautiful plains, especially in Upper Canada. The soil of Lower Canada, which is the most cultivated,



is a blackish mould of no great depth, lying on a cold clay. It is fertile, and produces good crops of grain.

The indigenous plants of this country present a singular union of the natives of the temperate and frigid climates; those of the former, being protected by the snow in the winter, survive to decorate the summer, though in a dwindled condition. The woods consist chiefly of furs and evergreens, with maple, birch, elm, and lime. Oaks are rare or stunted, and no good ship-timber is afforded by Canada. Wheat is produced in quantities sufficient to allow of exportation. Culinary vegetables thrive well, and some tobacco is grown for domestic use. Game abounds in the remoter parts, and many of the wild animals of North America are found within the limits of these provinces.

The inhabitants of Canada are mostly French, and use the French language, and follow the Roman catholic religion. They are lively, thoughtless, and social. There are some British settlers and merchants, and civil and military officers, and American loyalists. A constitution has been given to them resembling that of Great Britain; and they derive many advantages from the money transmitted for the support of the government. They are supplied from England with manufactured goods and articles of luxury, in return for which they send corn, potash, ginseng, fish, and especially furs, procured by barter from the savages in the back country.

The capital of Canada is Quebec, built upon the north-west bank of the river St. Lawrence, which is here a wide and deep stream, capable of receiving the greatest ships of war. It consists of an upper and lower town; the former well fortified, and containing the principal public buildings; the latter inhabited chiefly by traders and mariners. The inhabitants are reckoned at 10000, exclusive of the garrison. It is a gay and lively place, and its environs afford many sublime and beautiful prospects.

Montreal, the second town in Canada, is built on an island in the river St. Lawrence, about 150 miles above Quebec, at the furthest point accessible to shipping. It is a neat town and contains about 9000 inhabitants, and is the chief staple of the

Canada fur-trade. Trois Rivières, situated between Québec and Montreal, though a small place, is reckoned the third town of the province: it is noted for the resort of the savages engaged in the fur-trade. Newark, the capital of Upper Canada, is yet in its infancy.

Canada is a country which offers many advantages to settlers who are fond of a simple retired life, and have a taste for the beauties of nature; but its products are not sufficiently numerous or valuable to afford scope for extensive commercial speculations.

NEW BRUNSWICK and NOVA SCOTIA are two provinces including the country between the mouth and gulf of the river St. Lawrence, and the north-eastern territory of the United States. The climate here is rude and unpleasant; and near the sea fogs prevail during great part of the year. The soil is in general thin and steril, except on the banks of the rivers, which yield plenty of grass, flax, and hemp. A great part of the country is overgrown with forests, containing some trees of the pine tribe of extraordinary magnitude, fit for masts of the largest size. The rivers and coasts abound with fish, which, with timber, and the smaller wood called lumber, are the chief articles of export. Gypsum, or plaster of Paris, is found in Nova Scotia, and is becoming a profitable article of commerce. Frederick's Town, on the river St. John, is the capital of New Brunswick. The capital of Nova Scotia is Halifax, which contains about 15000 inhabitants, and is the most populous town of British America. It possesses a good harbour, in which ships of war are always stationed for the protection of the fisheries. It is a fortified place and a military post. The bay of Fundy, running up between the two provinces, is remarkable for the height of its tides, which rise from 45 to 60 feet.

CAPE BRETON is an island, separated by a narrow strait from Nova Scotia, but reckoned in the province of Lower Canada. It was settled by the French, who built upon it the fortified town of Louisbourg, the importance of which was chiefly ow-

ing to its being the key to the river St. Lawrence. The island abounds in lakes and forests, and offers few inducements to settle in it, except its proximity to the fisheries. A very extensive bed of coal has been discovered in it, at a small distance from the surface, of which little use has hitherto been made ; but hereafter, when the wood of the continent shall have been wasted by the consumption of a full population, it may prove highly valuable.

An island to the west of Cape Breton, named St. John's, is attached to the government of Nova Scotia, and is tolerably well peopled.

**NEWFOUNDLAND.** This large island appears as if it had been broken off from the coast of Labrador by the waters of the river St. Lawrence, which disembogue opposite to the strait separating it from that country. It is of a triangular figure, about 320 miles in length and breadth, and deeply indented by bays and inlets of the sea. It was discovered in 1496 by Sebastian Cabot, who sailed under the auspices of the king of England ; but the rigour of the climate long deterred settlers from Europe, and it is now only regarded as a station for the great fishery off its coast. The interior country has scarcely been penetrated beyond thirty miles. As far as the island has been examined it appears hilly and woody, with many ponds and morasses, and some dry barren tracts. On the south, the coast rises into lofty headlands. The climate is extremely disagreeable on account of the perpetual fogs and severe cold of winter. The principal towns are St. John's and Placentia ; but in the whole island not more than a thousand families reside throughout the year.

In the fishing season, which continues from May to September, the shores of Newfoundland are much resorted to as stations for the drying and curing of the fish caught on its banks. This celebrated fishing-ground is reckoned 400 miles in length and about 140 in breadth. The water upon it is from 22 to 50 fathoms in depth, whereas on the outside it is from 60 to 80. The place of the great banks is marked by a swell of the sea and a thick fog. The fish principally taken upon them is cod,

in immense and inexhaustible quantities. The English fishing-vessels are more than 500 in number; and the French, who in every treaty of peace have secured a right of fishing here, and curing their fish on some small islands allotted to them, have sometimes been equally numerous. The United States likewise enjoy the same privilege of fishing as they had before their separation from the parent country. The Newfoundland cod is exported in large quantities to the Roman catholic countries of Europe, where it supplies food for the fasts of the church.

The extensive country of LABRADOR, and the coasts of HUDSON'S BAY, can scarcely be reckoned as appropriated by European settlers, though they have been dignified by the name of New Britain. They are wild regions, in a state of nature, rendered incapable of culture by extreme cold, and properly left to the native hunters and fishers, who find in them an abundance of game. There are, however, some trading posts or factories belonging to the Hudson's Bay company, which was established in 1670 for the purposes of commerce and plantation. These are Albany-fort and Moose-fort, on James's bay, which is the southern extremity of Hudson's bay; Severn-house, at the mouth of the river Severn; York-fort, on Nelson's river; and Churchill-fort on Churchill river, which is the most northerly of their posts. These are only houses inhabited by the servants of the company, who trade with the savages for furs, which are often brought from great distances within land.

## UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

THE New World presents nothing equally interesting to the philosopher and statesman, as the spectacle of a vast territory, capable of almost unlimited increase, possessed by a people of European origin, and participating of all the light and knowledge of Europe, under a system of government more favourable to civil and religious liberty, and consequently to mental improvement, than, perhaps, the world has ever seen, and making a rapid progress in population, wealth, and political consequence.

The dominions of the United States extend in a line from north-east to south-west, between the 45th and 30th degrees of N. latitude. To the north they have Canada; to the east, the Atlantic ocean; to the south, the Spanish part of North America; to the west, the great wilderness still occupied by the natives, of which, by purchase or other means, the bounds are continually contracting; so that the Pacific ocean may be regarded as their ultimate limit on that side.

In consequence of the disputes between the American colonies and Great Britain relative to taxation, which broke out into open war in 1775, a congress of the several colonies made a public declaration of their independence in 1776, which was conceded by Britain at the peace in 1783. They then agreed upon a federal government, under the title of the United States of America, which was finally settled in 1788. It consists of a president, vice-president, senate, and house of representatives, all elective, and originally emanating from the great body of the people. Within its powers are comprehended all acts respecting the transactions of the United States with foreign countries, and also respecting their mutual intercourse and connection, political and commercial. In these points the federal gov-

ernment, or congress, is sovereign and supreme ; but the interior concerns of each particular state are left to be managed by its own legislature, which is, for the most part, organized upon similar principles with the general congress, consisting of a president, an upper and a lower house. This form of government was originally borrowed from the mother country, but is rendered more republican by giving much less power to the executive branch, and founding the whole upon popular election. The American constitution is the only complete model of a representative government that has ever existed ; and there seems no reason to doubt of its stability and adequacy to every useful purpose. The system of laws is in general copied from that of England, with such improvements and alterations as experience has dictated. In some of the states, particularly in Pennsylvania, capital punishments have been restricted to a very few crimes, and the object of reforming criminals has been pursued with much humane and wise policy.\*

It is a peculiarity in the American states, which has tended greatly to obviate many of the evils and dissensions of the governments in the old world, that there is no predominant religion ; that is, there is no one exclusively maintained by the state, and conferring particular rights and privileges on its professors. In the middle and southern states religion is left wholly to the will and spontaneous exertions of individuals ; in the northern states (Rhode Island excepted) a quota is required from all the inhabitants for the support of public worship ; but it is left to every one's choice to what particular sect his payment shall be appropriated. This perfect freedom with respect to religious doctrine and worship has produced its natural effect of fostering a greater number of religious sects and persuasions in the territories of the United States than, probably, exists in any other country in the world ; but this variety is not accompanied with the smallest tendency to the breach of peace and good order. The common bond of citizen is

\* The criminal code of Pennsylvania does not appear to have produced all the salutary effects which were expected by its authors ; and it is a lamentable fact that the same malefactors have repeatedly suffered the discipline of reform without success.

found fully sufficient to secure that agreement by which civil society is held together. Of the different forms of religious association those seem to flourish most which in their constitution are most consonant to the popular principles of the civil government. A great majority ranks under the denomination of protestants. Maryland was originally settled by Roman catholics. The emigrants from Ireland have augmented this class of religionists. The protestant episcopalians have bishops as the superior order in their church ; but without any civil prerogatives or titular honours.

No man is excluded from any civil or military office under the federal government on account of his religious opinions. The laws of some particular states require candidates for certain civil offices to profess christianity. The constitution of the United States prohibits titles of nobility, and office alone confers honorary distinctions, though not by the sanction of law. Courtesy has created and custom has established certain titles of honour, to which no privileges are attached. The love of consequence and power has instituted some artificial distinctions of rank, and usage has confirmed their authority. Thus, a professional man and a merchant are esteemed the highest grade in society.

As there is a provision in the constitution for creating new states when the population of newly-settled countries shall reach a certain point, several have been added since the first confederation, and others are in the progress towards that privilege. The present number is seventeen, which are usually distributed into the three grand divisions of the northern or eastern, the middle, and the southern.

According to the received arrangement the North-east States are NEW HAMPSHIRE, MASSACHUSETTS (to which is annexed the district of MAINE) CONNECTICUT, RHODE ISLAND, and the inland state of VERMONT. They are commonly denominated the New England States, or simply New England. They have been longer fully settled and peopled than the rest of North America. Their citizens are peculiarly addicted to commerce and maritime adventure. The principal fisheries also exist upon their coasts. In the interior parts of New

England the people are chiefly employed in agriculture. Wheat is blighted to the distance of 60 or 70 miles from the sea-coast, and a sufficient quantity is not produced to supply the people. Rye, barley, oats, and maize are chiefly cultivated.

The Middle States are NEW YORK, NEW JERSEY, PENNSYLVANIA, DELAWARE, and the OHIO TERRITORY, which last is a new state on the north-west of that river. These countries, favoured by their climate, and possessing a large extent of improveable land, present sufficient encouragement to the agriculturist, while their ports and water communications naturally invite to the speculations of commerce; consequently they are distinguished by their active exertions in both these branches of industry. The middle states are favourable to the growth of grain, grass, and fruit.

The Southern States consist of MARYLAND, VIRGINIA, NORTH CAROLINA, SOUTH CAROLINA, GEORGIA, and the inland states of KENTUCKY and TENNESSEE. In those states a great degree of solar heat gives birth to the richer products of nature; and the vast extent and inadequate occupation of the land afford unlimited scope to the schemes of planters and settlers. Towards the sea-coast there are tracts, indeed, which have been so long under culture that their fertility is almost exhausted; and in some of these districts the commercial spirit is very active. Upon the whole, however, the people of the southern states are chiefly employed in raising products which are exported by others, as wheat, maize, rice, tobacco, cotton, and indigo. The newly occupied countries on the Ohio and Mississippi are distinguished for the richness of their soil and the softness of their climate.

To all these is now to be added the extensive country of LOUISIANA, containing sufficient space for several future states. Its western limits are quite indefinite. It can scarcely be doubted that in process of time the territory of the United States will include the whole northern side of the gulf of Mexico. Louisiana is divided into Upper and Lower, but the proportion of settled land in both is inconsiderable.

Though the climate of the United States differs in the extremes of heat and cold in different latitudes, yet it admits a



general character. It is subject to great extremes of heat and cold, and to frequent, sudden, and great changes of the weather and of the temperature of the air. The thermometer sometimes falls  $20^{\circ}$  in a few hours, and varies  $40^{\circ}$  or  $50^{\circ}$  in a few days. Through the whole extent of the country from Georgia to the district of Maine the range of the thermometer is between  $100^{\circ}$  and  $-20^{\circ}$ ; and sometimes the extreme temperature of the air exceeds both these limits. In the northern parts of New England the thermometer has been  $-30^{\circ}$ . The country to the west of the Alleghany mountains is more equable in temperature than the same latitudes on the eastern side, and the mean annual heat is greater.

The following description of the climate of Pennsylvania is extracted from Rush's Medical Inquiries, vol. i. second edition; and nearly applies to all the states north of Virginia. "It appears," says Dr. Rush, "that the climate of Pennsylvania is a compound of most of the climates in the world. Here we have the moisture of Britain in the spring, the heat of Africa in summer, the temperature of Italy in June, the sky of Egypt in the autumn, the cold and snows of Norway and the ice of Holland in the winter, the tempests, in a certain degree, of the West Indies in every season, and the variable winds and weather of Britain in every month of the year." This essay contains many facts and observations from which the reader may derive adequate information respecting the climate of the middle and northern states.

Autumn is the finest season of the year; the temperature of the air is then most agreeable, and the weather is generally serene and settled through the months of September, October, and part of November. Spring cannot, with propriety, be called one of the seasons of the year in North America, for one day is warm and pleasant, another cold and stormy. An European spring differs widely from an American spring.

In New England, winter (or the duration of frost) lasts above half the year, and the farmers fodder their cattle six or seven months; in the middle states winter lasts about half the year; in the southern and western states winter is not so long. In the states north of Virginia, or  $38^{\circ}$ , fires are commonly kept in sitting rooms about seven or eight months.

The territory of the United States is pervaded by a chain of mountains running parallel to the sea-coast at the distance of from 50 to 130 miles. This chain extends above 1000 miles, from the mouth of the river St. Lawrence to the source of the river Apalachicola in Georgia, whence it is named by the natives the Alleghany or Endless Mountains. Its appearance and composition on the north side of Hudson's river are different from those on the south side. To the north of the Hudson it dilates into single mountains or short ranges, overspreading great part of New Hampshire and Vermont, and has a granitic base; to the south it forms several ridges which are nearly parallel, and traverse the back parts of the states of New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, till they coalesce in a kind of knot on the frontier of North Carolina, where they turn westward towards the Mississippi. It is this latter part alone which is properly termed the Apalachian Mountains. These parallel ridges bear different appellations in different parts; as the Blue Mountains, the North Mountains, the Laurel Mountains, &c. They occupy in breadth a space from 70 to 120 miles, are composed chiefly of sand-stone with the intervention of tracts of lime-stone, and are covered with forests, mostly of deciduous trees. They have more regularity in their direction, and equality in the line of their summits, and likewise much less elevation than the most famous chains of mountains in the old world.

From Chesapeak-bay southward, between the Alleghany mountains and the Atlantic ocean, the country is generally level, and composed of fine white sand, like that of the sea-beach. Near the mountains it is more varied in soil and surface. Between the mountains and the Mississippi it expands in some places into vast level meadows, of a clayey soil covered with a rich black mould; in others it is overspread by lateral branches from the main ridge, producing a varied surface of great fertility of soil. Vegetation on the western side of the mountains is much more vigorous and luxuriant than on the eastern. The borders of the Mississippi are either continued forests or spacious meadows; and the newly-acquired country of Louisiana contains some of the most fruitful tracts on the

globe. The northern and middle states are generally uneven and hilly, with some mountains.

Of the rivers proper to the United States the most considerable will be briefly described. Penobscot, Kennebec, and Connecticut, running due north and south through the New England states, issue into the Atlantic ocean. The Hudson, a fine navigable stream springing from some lakes to the north of the state of New York, enters the sea at the city of New York, the capital of that state. It has bold romantic shores, and admits ships of burden to a considerable distance. The Delaware, a large navigable river, gives a port to Philadelphia, and forms a wide bay at its termination. The Susquehanna, a broad and rapid river, rising in the high country south of lake Ontario, and taking a circuitous course southwards, penetrates the ridge of the Blue Mountains, and flows into the head of the great bay of Chesapeak, to which it is the principal contributory stream. The Potowmac, a fine navigable river, rises beyond the Blue Ridge, and first flows northwards, but, after being joined by the Shenandoa, turns short eastwards, and bursts its way through the ridge with the appearance of a violent disruption of the rocks; it then makes its way to the Chesapeak, affording in its course a noble site on its bank to the new American metropolis, Washington. The Fluvanna, or James's River, the Roanoke, the Pedee, the Santee, the Savannah, and the Altamaha, are considerable rivers, occurring in succession from the mouth of the Chesapeak to the southern limit of Georgia. Several large streams cross the back part of Georgia in their way to the gulf of Mexico: of these one of the principal is the Apalachicola, taking its name and source from the same tract which gives its name to the Apalachian mountains.

On the western side of the central chain of mountains, no river can vie with the Ohio, which ranks among the noblest streams of North America. It takes its rise in the back part of Pennsylvania, and, meandering to the southwest through Indiana and Kentucky, enters the Mississippi near New Madrid, about the 37th degree of latitude. It receives the tribute of many considerable streams, among which are the Wabash, the Scioto, the Great Kanaway, the Cumberland, and the Tennessee. The next river is the Illinois, which waters extensive and

fertile meadows, and flows into the Mississippi. Other large rivers flow more northwards into the Mississippi, through regions at present savage, but probably the future seats of culture and civilization.

The great lakes which form the northern boundary of the United States have already been mentioned. Lake Champlain; between the states of New York and Vermont, has a length of 75 miles, with a breadth of only four or five. It communicates at its northern extremity with the river St. Lawrence; while lake George, at its southern extremity approaches near to the Hudson; thus, with the aid of a short canal, affording a very extensive water communication. Several other lakes appear in the back parts of the state of New York.

The famous falls of Niagara, on a stream connecting the lakes Ontario and Erie, are partly in the British territory, and partly in that of the United States. Taking together the breadth and body of the water, and the height of the fall, there is no cataract in the known world equal to it in grandeur.

The rivers of the United States in general pour down great quantities of water, and have either falls or rapids in some parts of their course, which are obstacles to an internal navigation, in other respects more extensive and complete than most countries enjoy. These inconveniencies, however, are in some measure remedied by portages or carrying places for short distances at the obstructed spots; and the communication will be greatly improved by the canals which are begun or projected in various parts.

No country affords a greater variety of indigenous plants, many of which are distinguished for stately growth and beauty. It is particularly rich in trees and shrubs, most of them differing in genus or species from those in the old world. In the woods are several new species of oak, walnut, poplar and maple. The sugar-maple abounds in many parts of the United States, and is valuable to the farmer and economist on account of its saccharine juice extracted by tapping, which, by inspissation, yields a coarse sugar fit for domestic uses. The pine tribe is very largely diffused, and consists of numerous species fit for timber and other purposes. The kindred cedar or cypress, juniper, and arbor vitæ, are very common. In the western countries

the occidental plane and the tulip tree grow to an extraordinary size. In the southern states the great magnolia rises to a magnificence of bulk which renders it the pride of the forest, the glaucous magnolia perfumes the air, and the woods afford the richest variety of flowering shrubs and beautiful trees. The American botanist has still before him a vast field of objects for investigation.

In their cultivated vegetable products the American settlers chiefly took example from their mother country, and turned their attention to the raising of grain and the usual esculent plants of Europe. Wheat and flour are now become great articles of export in favourable years. Maize is grown in large quantities for their own consumption. Rice is cultivated with success on the marshy land of the southern states. The potatoe is a native root, and was one of the most valuable presents made by the new to the old world. Cotton, tobacco, and indigo are important products of the southern parts, and form valuable commodities for foreign trade. Orchards are common every-where, and apples, pears, peaches, &c. are abundant. The hop and the vine are native plants; the former is cultivated in considerable quantities, and used by the brewers.

The zoology of the United States is comprehended in that of North America in general. Plenty of game is still met with in the interior country, and the rivers are well stocked with fish. Reptiles and insects are extremely numerous, some of which are harmless and some hurtful. A venomous serpent, the rattle snake, is common in some uncultivated parts of the middle and southern states. The domestic animals are those of Europe naturalized. The birds are numerous, and the plumage of some of them is very beautiful. The singing birds of America are said to be inferior to those of Europe in the sweetness and variety of their notes.

Circumstances have not yet permitted the people of the United States to employ much labour in searching for minerals. The most useful of metals, iron, abounds in many parts of the middle and northern states. Copper, lead, and silver have been found in different states; and rich lead mines are worked in Virginia. In the account of the coinage of the United States for 1804 it appears that 11000

dollars of the gold coin were the produce of virgin gold in the county of Cabarrus, in North Carolina, and expectations are given of an increase in the quantity. Some lead mines of extraordinary richness are worked in Upper Louisiana, though very incompetently, for want of hands. Pit-coal has been discovered in various parts. Virginia particularly abounds in this valuable mineral; and the country about Pittsburgh, in Pennsylvania, affords it of superior quality. It likewise frequently occurs on the Ohio and Mississippi

Several mineral springs break forth in different parts of the United States, some of which begin to be frequented for the purposes of health and amusement. The most celebrated mineral waters are at Saratoga and Ballston in the state of New York. The latter place is much frequented by gay and fashionable people as well as by invalids.

The European population of the United States has proceeded chiefly from England, of which country they were all subject colonies till the revolution, which rendered them sovereign and independent. The English origin is most pure and unmixed in the people of New England, and next to them in those of Virginia and the Carolinas. New York and New Jersey were originally Dutch colonies, and Pennsylvania had a large admixture of Swedes and Germans. In latter times great numbers of people have emigrated from Scotland, Ireland, and Germany, who have gone principally to the back parts of the middle and southern states. These diversities of origin, together with the differences of climate, must have produced a variety in the dispositions and manners of the inhabitants of the several states; yet enough of general similarity remains whereon to found an idea of national character.

The Anglo-Americans (by which name they are usually designated in Europe) resemble their progenitors in a sedateness and coldness of temper, which renders them persevering in their exertions, and steadfast in their purposes. "Attachment to wealth (says an American author) singularly designates the character of Americans in almost every part of the union." No nation pursues prospects of gain with more ardour, perseverance, and success.

It has been remarked by foreigners that the people of the northern and middle states are generally tall and well formed. The descendants of the British, Irish, Dutch, and Germans bear so strong a resemblance to their ancestors that they can generally be distinguished from one another. The people of the southern states have not in general that appearance of health and strength observable in the people of the other states. Their sallow emaciated aspect indicates an unfavourable climate.

The count de Buffon and other writers maintain that the posterity of Europeans who formerly emigrated to America exhibit marks of a degenerate race of men. But it does not appear that the human species, after a succession of ages, has suffered any considerable change in its external form and aspect, or in its mental qualities. The people of New England are not inferior in size and strength to the natives of Britain, and still resemble them in their form and features; nor do they display less vigour of mind than their foreign brethren.

Foreigners wonder to see so many beautiful and elegant women in the northern and middle states, especially as a climate so variable and inclement is destructive to female beauty. The vernal bloom of beauty soon fades, especially in the southern states.

To compare the Americans, with respect to their taste for literature and the arts, with the nations of Europe, abounding in men of wealth and leisure, and possessed of excellent models of every kind, would be unjust; but it may be affirmed that their numerous institutions for liberal education argue no want of attention to this point; and in many of the states the knowledge and the love of letters to a certain degree are widely diffused. Some original works have been produced in the United States, which certainly possess the merit of correctness and elegance. To mechanical inventions and the useful sciences they seem to have a peculiar aptitude.

Learning is more generally diffused among the people of the northern than of the other states. Public schools for reading, writing, and arithmetic are established by law in all the settled townships in New England. But this excellent law

is evaded and partially executed, and in many country places the public schools are shut up during summer. The masters too are not always duly qualified for the important office of instructing youth. There are no public schools in the middle and southern states, and in the thinly inhabited parts of them people of small fortune cannot give their children even a common education. There are private schools in all the large towns in the United States, at which the children of people of fortune can be educated for trade and business, and prepared for college.

There are many colleges in the United States, where the students are instructed in the ancient classics, and in the elements of certain sciences. In some populous townships academies have been instituted, in which are taught English, Latin, Greek, writing, arithmetic, geography, &c.

In the large towns much attention is given to the ornamental accomplishments of women; but the more essential branches of education, which tend to invigorate and improve the mental faculties of youth, have not yet received that portion of regard which their use and importance seem to deserve. The daughters of people of fortune learn reading, writing, arithmetic, english grammar, geography, and history. The last two branches are usually taught in a very concise and superficial manner. The French language is become a fashionable study for young ladies, the utility of which, as a part of female education, admits of dispute. Barrow's Essay on education, to which I refer the reader, contains many good observations on this subject. Female education is in a progressive state, and there is some reason to hope that an improved plan will be adopted in the principal towns. The advantages of an extensive and liberal system of female education are so obvious that it would be superfluous to enter into a detail of them.

The great number of English books which are annually reprinted and sold in this country proves that the people give considerable attention to literature. Most of the best English books have been reprinted here, as well as many light and temporary works. The taste for literature seems to increase in pro-



portion to the increase of schools and the improvements which have been made in the general system of education. Though much has been effected, yet much still remains to be done before they can expect to enjoy all the benefits which useful learning is capable of bestowing.

The number of news-papers which are published in all parts of the United States is almost incredible, and exceeds that of any country in the world.

In domestic and public virtue the people of the United States need not shun competition with any people in Europe; and, upon the whole, there is a solidity in their national character, which may justify the hope, that as it carried them with success and reputation through their hard struggle for liberty and through subsequent difficulties, so it will enable them to preserve the singular civil advantages which they possess, and make them worthy of the title of a free people.

In the comparison of the people of the different states, those of New England, originally settled by an austere and gloomy sect, but sober, industrious, and considerate, are still reckoned the most orderly, public-spirited, and enlightened; but among the least agreeable in their manners. They have a remarkable spirit of enterprise, and compose the greater part of the emigrants to the new territories in the west and south. At the opposite point of the scale are the people of Georgia, Carolina, and Virginia, partaking of the indolence, dissipation, and warm passions of the West Indian character, but hospitable and generous. The use of negro slaves as labourers and domestics has exerted that unfavourable influence upon their morals which can never, under any regulations, be entirely obviated. The people of the intermediate states have mingled shades of character, in which may be traced the operation of the peculiar circumstances under which they are placed, and the force of origin.

The people of the United States are employed in agriculture, in trade and commerce, and in the exercise of various mechanical arts. The populace may be said to live in rude abundance; and probably no country offers greater advantages to the industrious poor. In the chief towns the conveniences,

luxuries, and elegances of life are become an important object of attention among the rich; and a taste for large commodious houses and elegant furniture prevails. Costly and splendid entertainments, and gay convivial parties are common in the winter season. In populous parts of the country the expense of living is great. Food, clothing, the wages of servants, and the rents of houses are dear in all places near the sea-coast. Though habitual intoxication is not a prevailing vice in this country, yet the great body of the people is addicted to the use of ardent spirits.

The diseases most prevalent in the United States are bilious and inflammatory fevers, consumption, ague, dysentery, and severe colds. The yellow fever has been extremely fatal in the principal towns; and its origin and contagious nature still remain doubtful.

The population of the United States is rapidly progressive, and at the last enumeration in 1800, amounted to 3305482, including, however, a considerable number of negro slaves. The increase of population since the revolution has been great beyond example. This rapid increase arises from two causes, the facility of supporting a family, and the numerous and constant emigrations from Britain, Ireland, and Germany. For many years past thousands of Irish and German emigrants have arrived annually in the United States, some of whom are employed as labourers in the great towns, and others retire into the back country, and are employed in agriculture.

Happily detached from the scene of European contention, the United States are not obliged to squander wealth and divert industry in the maintenance of vast standing armies or navies. A very small number of regular troops serves for their frontier garrisons, and a few frigates give protection to their trade against their only enemies, the Barbary corsairs. The internal defence of the country and constitution is committed to a militia, formed of almost every citizen fit to bear arms.

The towns of North America, being all new creations, cannot yet be expected to vie in magnitude and splendour with some of the cities and capitals of the old world: several of them, however, are considerable for trade and population, and

are well provided with the establishments requisite for police and convenience.

Boston, the capital of the state of Massachusetts, is the largest town in New England. Its fine harbour, and the enterprising spirit of its inhabitants, have given it a large share of trade. It is a very wealthy town, and affords much cultivated society. The population is about 30000, and is rapidly increasing.

New York takes the lead of all the American towns in point of commerce. Its harbour admits vessels of the greatest burden, and its internal communications by means of Hudson's river are extensive. It contains some elegant streets and handsome buildings, and its population at this time probably amounts to 70000. The inhabitants are gay and hospitable, and English manners are reckoned peculiarly prevalent among them.

Philadelphia, founded by the celebrated William Penn, may be regarded as the principal city of the United States. It lies between two rivers, the Delaware and Schuylkill, the former of which admits large ships to its quays. The streets are wide, and laid out with great regularity, running in straight lines east and west, and north and south, and crossing one another at right angles. The style of building is neat, and the whole exhibits a general air of opulence. The public institutions are numerous and well conducted. Philadelphia possesses an university, a philosophical society, and an academy of fine arts, which has been lately instituted. The college is in reality a great school, where the scholars receive that most useful kind of education which qualifies them for men of business. It is famous for its numerous and flourishing medical school, which has the reputation of being the best in America. The best miscellaneous library in the United States belongs to a company of subscribers in Philadelphia, and contains 14218 volumes, many of which are rare and valuable. It is open to all persons from two o'clock in the afternoon to sun-set. A valuable collection of books in various languages, ancient and modern, consisting of 3843 volumes, and called the Loganian library, from James Logan the donor, is kept in an adjoining room in the

same building, and is open from two o'clock to sun-set. This library is the property of the people of Pennsylvania. The museum established by Mr. Charles Peale consists of a great variety of natural objects collected from all parts of the world, and far exceeds any similar collection in North America. Philadelphia is the centre of much national business, and its foreign commerce is extensive, but does not increase in the same proportion as that of New York and Baltimore. The population is probably above 80000.

Baltimore, in Maryland, has within a few years been raised to the rank of the fourth commercial town in the United States. The number of inhabitants is about 30000.

Charleston, the capital of South Carolina, in a climate approaching to that of the West Indies, has long been distinguished by the gayety and sociability of its inhabitants. Its commerce is flourishing, and its population is about 20000.

The seat of the federal government has been fixed in a town built for the purpose on the confines of Virginia and Maryland, and named WASHINGTON, from the great patriot to whom the Americans were so much indebted for their independence. Placed on the river Potowmac, in a fine country, it is thought to unite all the advantages essential to a great metropolis; and a plan has been laid out for it, which, if completed, will render it one of the handsomest and most commodious cities in the world. At present, though the congress holds its meetings in Washington, a very small part of the design is executed.

Many other towns are gradually rising into consequence, and commerce is yearly finding out new seats, as the internal country becomes settled.

New Orleans, in Louisiana, about 80 miles above the mouth of the Mississippi, from its favourable situation for commerce, will probably increase rapidly, if its growth be not retarded by an unhealthy climate.

The trade of the United States is very great and lucrative, and is annually increasing. The principal exports of home production from the northern states are timber in various forms, particularly the small sort called lumber, pot and pearl ashes, flax-seed, fish and fish-oil, beef and pork; from the

middle states, wheat, flour, maize, beef and pork ; and from the southern states, tobacco, indigo, cotton, maize, rice, tar and turpentine. The United States are the medium of a great commerce with Europe in West India goods, and lately of East India articles likewise, which they procure by a direct trade thither. The carrying trade is also a source of profitable employment, especially during a maritime war in Europe. They import a great variety of articles of use and luxury from different countries, especially from Great Britain, whose merchants and manufacturers alone are capable of giving the long credit which they generally require. Their own manufactures are chiefly the coarser and most necessary goods for home-consumption. The scanty population and high price of labour, with the great encouragements to agriculture, at present oppose any extensive manufacturing schemes ; yet they are beginning to make various articles which were lately procured from abroad.

Many islands belonging to the United States are scattered along the coast. Of these the principal are Martha's Vineyard and Nantucket, which both belong to the state of Massachusetts ; Rhode Island, from which the whole state takes its name ; Long Island and Staten Island, which both belong to the state of New York. Long Island lies off the city of New York, near the main land : its length is about 140 miles, and mean breadth 10 miles.

Among the most remarkable natural curiosities of the United States may be reckoned the Falls of Niagara, the Falls of Mohawk, called Cohoes by the Indians, the natural bridge in Virginia, the apparent irruption of the river Potowmac through the Blue ridge, the grand scenery of the river Hudson, the high and steep banks of Dick's river and the river Kentucky. The plan of this work does not properly admit a description of such objects ; the curious reader will find them in Morse's Geography and other books.

## SPANISH DOMINIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

**THE** whole of the southern part of the continent belongs to the crown of Spain, which conquered it soon after the discovery of the New World. The destruction of the native empire of Mexico, with its numerous people, was one of the vaunted exploits of Spanish valour exerted against naked savages. The poor remnant is now the subjects, or rather the slaves, of Spain, which has colonized these countries, and established in them its civil and religious forms of government.

The boundaries of this country are the isthmus of Darien to the south, the Pacific ocean to the west, and the gulf of Mexico to the east. The northern limits are contested ; for, whilst the English would restrict them on the western coast to a port a little to the north of Monterey, about N. latitude  $38^{\circ}$ , the Spaniards claim almost the whole of that side of the continent ; and disputes have arisen between the two nations concerning the right of forming trading factories at Nootka, in latitude  $50^{\circ}$ . The boundaries on the Louisianian border are probably not exactly fixed, as they run in tracts as yet occupied by the natives, and beyond all European settlements. East and West Florida are now cut off from contiguity with the rest of the Spanish dominions, in consequence of the possession of Louisiana by the United States ; and it is probable that at no distant period they may cease to be a part of them.

The Spanish territories in North America may be reckoned to extend in a direction from north-west to south-east from N. latitude  $39^{\circ} 30'$  to  $7^{\circ} 30'$ . Their breadth is very disproportionate to their length. Suddenly contracting from the northern shore of the gulf of Mexico, the land rapidly, but unequally, diminishes to a mere neck at the isthmus of Darien. In respect to climate, a great part lies within the tropics, and of con-

sequence feels the extreme of solar heat ; and even the northern portion is parallel to the most southern of the United States. Heavy rains prevail during several months of the year ; storms and lightning are frequent, and earthquakes not uncommon. The sea-coast is generally hot, moist, and unhealthy, but the internal parts often enjoy a mild temperature and salubrious air.

The face of country, in a general view, may be considered as mountainous. In the north the whole peninsula of California is divided by a ridge of hills ; and branches descend from the great chain of the Stony Mountains, which overspread the province of New Mexico and the country commonly called New Spain, and terminate to the north of the lake of Nicaragua. Some of these present very lofty summits, covered with perpetual snow ; and many volcanoes occur, the causes or concomitants of the frequent earthquakes.

Of the rivers that which claims pre-eminence for length of course is the Rio Brava or del Norte, of which the sources are not explored. It takes its way south-eastward through New Mexico and Leon, and reaches the gulf of Mexico about the 26th degree of N. latitude. To the east of it, the Rio Colorado, which flows in the same direction, is a considerable stream. A large river to which the same appellation is given by some geographers enters the upper end of the gulf of California. After the continent begins to contract sufficient space is not left for rivers of a long course ; but many streams descend from the hills on each side to the two seas.

Of the lakes the principal is that of Nicaragua, about 170 miles in length and 80 in breadth. It has an outlet to the gulf of Mexico ; and, being situated where the two seas make a near approach, goes far to effect a communication between them. The lake of Mexico, though not very extensive, is famous for its connexion with the capital city of Mexico. To the west of it is the lake of Chapala, which is larger.

The natural riches of this country have not yet been investigated with scientific ardour and accuracy : some of its vegetable products, however, are well known by their value in commerce and the arts. Of these are the logwood and mahogany,

of which whole forests cover the shores of Honduras and Campeachy ; the guaiacum, sassafras, jalap, and balsams of tolu and copaiva, all articles of the *materia medica* ; the species of cactus, or Indian fig, on which the cochineal insect delights to feed ; the fine indigo of Guatemala, vanilla, and the chocolate-nut. Many quadrupeds and birds have been added to the naturalist's catalogue from New Spain, but they are such as have little influence upon human economy.

The mineral wealth of this region is scarcely surpassed by that of any part of the globe. The precious metals are found in almost all its provinces, from California to the isthmus of Darien ; and the crown of Spain derives a great revenue from its Mexican mines. In the northern province of Sonora discovery was made in 1771 of a plain in which great quantities of gold in lumps were mingled with the soil at a small distance from the surface. Copper abounds in the vicinity of the city of Mexico, and tin is enumerated among its metals. Valuable stones and gems are also met with in various districts.

When this part of the world was first discovered by Europeans a monarchy was found established at Mexico, with a state of society much more approaching to civilization than that of the hunter tribes of North America. The kingdom or empire of Mexico was of considerable extent, full of people, and formidable to all its neighbours. Its capital, seated in a lake, to which access was given only by narrow causeways, was large, fortified, and contained edifices of a rude magnificence. The Mexicans spoke a language different from any other known in the New World, and had many peculiarities of manners and customs. The government was despotic and severe ; the religion horrid and bloody in a singular degree, enjoining such a profusion of human sacrifices as tended materially to diminish the population. The government was overthrown by the celebrated Cortes, after a prodigious loss of lives, and with many circumstances of cruelty ; and the Spanish dominion was established in every part to which the military adventurers of that nation were able to penetrate. The Spaniards are still, however, a small number compared to the extent of the country possessed by them, and to the relics of the original inhabitants.



The government of these provinces is administered by the viceroy of Mexico, an officer of high rank and power, whose court is formed upon the model of regal splendour. Lately, indeed, a new and independent government, but of inferior dignity, has been formed of California and some of the adjacent districts. The Roman catholic religion prevails over the whole with all its superstition, pomp, and intolerance, and the burden of its monastic institutions. Little attention has hitherto been given to improve the natural advantages of the country in any other point than the working of mines, a consequence almost inseparable from abundance of the precious metals, and which has rendered the rich Spanish colonies of less benefit to the mother country than to the nations whose industry is paid by their produce.

The population of these provinces has been reckoned at six or seven millions under the dominion of Spain. There must, however, be many native tribes still in a state of independence. The fine peninsula of California was scarcely known till lately, except to the Jesuits, who had established missions in it ; and the districts in the northern parts, from their vicinity to the American wilderness, must be held in very precarious subjection.

The capital, Mexico, on the site of the ancient city of that name, is reckoned the principal place in all Spanish America. It is regularly planned and well built, with a great number of churches and religious houses, profusely decorated, and various ample establishments for the encouragement of science and the arts. The viceroy's palace and the mint are the most spacious edifices. The inhabitants are reckoned at 150000 (another account says 200000) of whom about one third is of Spanish blood. These are magnificent in their apparel, and luxurious in their mode of living ; and few cities display a greater show both of opulence and poverty. Though an inland town, Mexico is the centre of a vast commerce, by means of the ports connected with it on the two seas. A remarkable singularity attending this city is the floating islands on the lake, artificially formed of intertwined willows and other aquatics covered with earth, and cultivated as gardens : they are moved

from place to place on occasion, and supply the markets with flowers and vegetables.

Guatemala, a considerable place, was totally destroyed by an earthquake in 1773 ; but a new town has been erected near the same spot, and is in a flourishing condition. Acapulco, a port on the Pacific ocean, has long been famous for its commerce with the Philippine islands, and with Peru and Chili, and for its annual fair, frequented by merchants from all Spanish America. It is extremely unhealthy, and, except at the time of its fairs, is deserted by all the opulent inhabitants. Vera Cruz is the principal port on the opposite sea, and carries on the traffic between New Spain and Europe. It is likewise unhealthy, and is inhabited only by people of business. There are several other towns of considerable population in these provinces, but they are little visited by strangers.

The chief articles of export from New Spain are gold, silver, and precious stones, chocolate, cochineal, indigo, dying and cabinet woods, and some silk and cotton. It has few manufactures, and depends upon Europe for most articles of luxury and convenience.

## SOUTH AMERICA.

THIS vast peninsula, which, like Africa, might well be reckoned a distinct quarter of the world, extends from about the 12th degree of N. latitude to the 54th degree of S. latitude, not including the island of Terra del Fuego. This makes a length of about 4600 English miles. Its extreme breadth, which is under the 6th degree of S. latitude, stretches about 8340 miles; but it rapidly diminishes both ways from that point, particularly towards the southern extremity, where it becomes very narrow. It resembles Africa in shape, and the isthmus of Darien, by which it is connected with North America, is nearly of the same breadth with that of Suez.

The climate of South America has much greater varieties than that of Africa. Being projected several degrees further towards the south pole, its southern extremity is subjected to all the rigours of frost, so as scarcely to be habitable. It moreover exhibits many striking local diversities of climate, occasioned by the lofty mountains by which it is traversed, and which produce opposite seasons on their different sides, together with all the gradations from extreme cold to excessive heat, according to the difference of elevation.

The coasts of South America are for the most part unbroken by great bays or inlets of the sea, the wide mouths of some of the rivers being the most considerable of the indentations. The lagoon of Maracaybo, at the most northern point of the peninsula, the gulf of Guayaquil on the north west, and some gulfs in Patagonia on the south-east, are the principal deviations from the generally straight line of the coasts.

The face of this peninsula strongly contrasts with that of Africa, in being overspread with mighty rivers penetrating to its most internal parts, and flowing through immense tracts of verdure and fertility. By means of these rivers the country,

though a new world to Europeans, has been much more thoroughly explored than Africa has been through a long series of ages. There are still, indeed, extensive districts which are very little known: the impenetrable forests and wide inundations of some tracts, and the wild mountains and sandy deserts of others, opposing obstacles which the ardour of science has not yet overcome.

Though South America is in general a country of spacious plains and levels, yet it contains a chain of the loftiest mountains that have been discovered on the surface of the globe. These are the famous Andes, which may be traced the whole length of the peninsula, from the isthmus of Darien to the strait of Magellan, following the western line of coast, at the medial distance of a hundred miles. Its highest summits are nearly under the equator, in Peru. Some French mathematicians, who were sent to South America to measure a degree of latitude, and performed their operations among the mountains, computed the height of the loftiest of them, Chimborazo, to be 20280 English feet above the level of the sea. If this be nearly the height of Chimborazo, it is about one fourth part greater than that of Mont Blanc in Switzerland, which is the highest mountains in the eastern continent. It is covered with perpetual snow at 2400 feet from its summit. Cotopaxi, the next in height, is a volcano; and many others in the chain are volcanic, a circumstance undoubtedly connected with the tremendous earthquakes to which this part of the world is liable. Three mountainous chains have been traced running from west to east; one, not far from the northern coast; another, from the third to the seventh degree of N. latitude; and a third, from the 15th to the 20th degree of S. latitude: these, however, have been imperfectly examined. From the rise of the rivers some of the most elevated ground in the peninsula seems to be in the back part of Brazil, towards Paraguay.

The large scale upon which the features of this country are modelled is particularly conspicuous in its rivers. Among these the first place is due to the River of Amazons, so called from a supposed tribe of female warriors dwelling on its bank but more properly distinguished by the appellation of the Mar-

agnon. The rank of the greatest river in the world may be justly claimed for it, upon the compound estimate of its length of course, its breadth and depth of channel, and the sea-like expanse with which it meets the ocean. As usually happens in the case of a great river composed of a conflux of streams, the proper source of the Maragnon is a disputed point; but the most remote head of water contributing to it is that of the Apurimac, near the Pacific ocean, in S. latitude  $16^{\circ} 30'$ . This is one of the branches of the Ucayali, which is a wide stream where it joins the proper Maragnon. The latter, from its source about S. latitude  $11^{\circ}$ , makes a circuitous course, first north-west, and then east, to arrive at the point of junction. Thence, continually augmented by tributaries from the north and south, it flows on majestically eastward, bending to the north, till it is lost in the Atlantic ocean under the equator. Its course, from its least remote head, is estimated, with its windings, at 3300 miles. Among the many considerable rivers which compose this vast body of water are the Napo, Parana, and Rio Negro, from the north, and the Madera from the south, itself a mighty stream, scarcely inferior to its principal. Probably no collective system of rivers in the world waters so wide an extent of country, or bears such a tribute to the ocean. At some distance from its mouth the eye cannot reach from shore to shore. Its waters are muddy, denoting the richness of the tract through which it flows. Its banks are generally crowned with stately forests, sometimes interrupted by extensive marshes.

The second river in south America is that named Rio de la Plata, or the River of Silver. It is chiefly composed of two great streams, the Paraguay and Parana; the former rising near the central part of the peninsula; the latter having its source in Brazil not far from the sea. The first gives the direction to the river, which is almost due south: it is joined by the Picolmayo from the west, and soon after, at a place called Corrientes, by the Parana; and the united stream, not far from its termination, receives the Uruguay from the east. The Plata enters the Atlantic below Buenos Ayres, about S. latitude  $35^{\circ}$ , by a mouth so wide that from a ship in mid chan-

nel neither bank can be seen. Vessels of burden can navigate up the Paraguay to Assumption, which is 1200 miles from the sea. The channel of the Plata is so obstructed by shoals that navigation is very difficult and dangerous.

The Orinoco is a large river of the northern part of the peninsula, which has a singularly winding course. From its source, about the 5th degree of N. latitude, it flows first southwards to the great lake of Parima: this it quits in two streams, which unite and turn westward, till the junction of a considerable tributary forces them to a northern direction: the combined river then bending to the north-east, enters the sea by several channels opposite to the island of Trinidad. It is remarkable that the Orinoco, by means of the lake of Parima, has three communications with the Maragnon; a noble provision for extensive inland navigation, if this country should ever be fully settled by a civilized and active people.

The other rivers of South America belong rather to particular districts than to the country at large. The same may be said of its few lakes, which are in no proportion to the magnitude of its other features.

The plants and animals of South America exhibit the same generic and specific differences from those in the old world that have been mentioned in the account of the northern portion of this continent, but are still more numerous and luxuriant in growth, in consequence of the greater warmth of the climate. In a general view it may be remarked, that there exist in South America several animals which bear a similarity to kinds in the old world, but are inferior in size: thus, the camel has a representative in the llama; the hippopotamus in the tapir; the lion in the puma or cougar; the leopard in the jaguar. It is affirmed, however, that the South American tiger is as large and formidable as any beast of prey whatever. Monkeys are extremely numerous and various in the American forests, and there is a great variety of the squirrel, weasel, and opossum tribes. The splendour of the plumage of the birds is only rivalled by that of the birds of India. The serpents and alligators of its streams and marshes are of enor-

mous magnitude. In metallic treasures it is well known to surpass every region, that of Mexico perhaps excepted.

The human natives found in South America by its European discoverers, like those of North America, were not referable in feature, colour, or language, to any particular race in the old world. In many districts they were numerous, and divided into a great number of distinct tribes or nations, speaking different languages, and following different customs. Of all these the Peruvians were the farthest advanced in civilization. They lived under a regular monarchy, founded on a supposed divine origin of their sovereigns or incas; and had built towns of considerable size, constructed of stone, and connected by high roads. Their religion was of a much milder cast than that of the Mexicans, and human sacrifices were practised only at the death of a chief or king. The incas claimed a descent from the sun, and were regarded with the veneration due to superior beings. This kingdom was overthrown by the Spanish invaders, with the usual circumstances of cruelty and bloodshed; and many other native communities shared the same fate. Beside the natives existing under European subjection, there are many unsubdued tribes in the interior, savage in their manners and way of life, addicted to hunting, and some of them not less warlike and ferocious than those of North America.

We shall now survey this peninsula as it is possessed by the different European powers.

## SPANISH DOMINIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA.

THE crown of Spain, under the auspices of which America was first discovered, has not only retained a noble portion of the northern part of this new continent, but either actually possesses or claims by much the greater share of the southern. The whole western side, from the isthmus of Darien to the 44th degree of S. latitude, is within the Spanish dominion ; and the eastern side, with the interruption of Guiana and Brazil, to the south of the estuary of the Rio de la Plata. Indeed, in point of claim, the Spanish territory only ends with the continent itself.

This vast space is divided into three viceroyalties ; that of New Granada in the north ; of Peru, including Chili, on the west ; and of Buenos Ayres on the south-east. Each of these has a series of divisions and subdivisions, terminating in parishes and missions established among the savages.

The natural features of this country have already been sketched in the general view of South America. It may be added, that the borders of the Pacific, or South sea, consist for the most part of flat low land, of a sandy soil, called by the Spaniards valles. Ascending from these plains towards the Andes first occur varied and mountainous tracts, but still habitable, called sierras, beyond which are the high inaccessible summits named cordilleras. On the eastern side the Andes decline into vast extents of flat table land, but of considerable elevation, locally termed montannas, generally overspread with forests, and pervaded by the mighty rivers of the country. These stretch to the centre of the peninsula, and even to the shore of the opposite sea.



The province of New Granada has a considerable river of its own, the Magdalena, which rises in the Andes, and flows into the Caribbean sea near Carthagena. The greatest lake in South America is in Peru, the Titicaca, said to be 240 miles in circumference, and of a great depth.

Of the vegetable products peculiar to Spanish South America one of the most distinguished is the cinchona, or Peruvian bark, so much esteemed as a tonic and febrifuge medicine. Several species and varieties of it are met with, similar in virtue, but differing in strength and efficacy. A herb called Paraguay-tea, a species of *illex*, is by habitual use rendered so necessary to the natives who work in the mines, that they are unable to exist without it, and large quantities are collected and exported for their consumption.

It is a remarkable circumstance in the zoology of these countries, that the horses and horned cattle originally imported from Europe have so increased from some individuals let loose, that they have formed innumerable herds in the rich pastures bordering the rivers, and are now an object to the hunter, who supplies himself with them at pleasure. The tallow and hides of cattle so taken are become one of the principal articles of export; but the improvident waste made of them is said already to have reduced the stock in certain districts. For the purpose of carriage in the mountainous parts mules are reared in great numbers, and extraordinary accounts are given of the sagacity displayed by them in the descent of the steep and formidable declivities of the Andes. Among the mines, however, the native llama is preferred as a beast of burden, though much inferior in size and strength to the camel, to which he is compared. Those kindred animals, the vicuna and paco, are kept in large flocks for the sake of their wool, which is of a dull purplish hue, very soft and fine, and serves as a material for warm light stuffs of a silky quality.

From the first conquest of these countries to the present period they have been valued by Spain almost exclusively for the precious metals with which they abound. The isthmus of Darien and the region of Guiana were of early celebrity for their mines; and the fabulous el Dorado of the latter

excited the cupidity of all the maritime adventurers in Europe. At present mines of gold and silver are worked in most of the provinces of the three vice-royalties; and though the total produce is inferior to that of the Mexican mines, yet it is thought that this is owing to defects in the mode of working them, and that in natural wealth they are much superior. The famous mines of Potosi have yielded incalculable quantities of silver during two centuries and a half, and still show no marks of being exhausted. Quicksilver also, the medium by which the precious metals are extracted, is met with abundantly in a mine of Peru. Copper, lead, and tin occur in different parts; and the singular metallic substance called platina, which is now found valuable for several purposes in the arts, is exclusively the product of these mineral tracts. The true emerald is one of the peculiar products of the Peruvian mountains. It is to be lamented that all this wealth operates only to the misery of the poor natives who, from the first conquest of the country, have been compelled to work in the unwholesome mines, to the destruction of immense numbers of them.

It is asserted that latterly the Spanish government has turned its views toward the advancement of agriculture and the encouragement of manufactures and commerce in its American dominions, which must necessarily be followed by an improvement in the condition of the natives. In these points of just policy a striking example has been given by the Jesuit missionaries in Paraguay, who, by indefatigable efforts, converted and civilized a number of the savage tribes, and brought them to a state of order and discipline which, indeed, deprived them of all free-agency, and rendered them mere children, but was, perhaps, the only method of reclaiming them from their indolent and pernicious habits. Such was their attachment and submission to their instructors, that when the society of Jesuits was abolished in Spain it was thought that they might have retained Paraguay under their dominion in spite of the Spanish court; but they paid a ready and implicit obedience to the order for resigning the country to the officers of the crown.

The principal city of Spanish South America is Lima, the capital of Peru, situated on the western side of the Andes, not far from the sea. It is a populous and wealthy city, with an university and numerous churches and convents. The inhabitants are distinguished by a vivacity of genius, a liberality of sentiment, and an ardour for the acquisition of knowledge, that would scarcely be expected in trans-atlantic Spaniards. The buildings are low, on account of the earthquakes, which have frequently proved very destructive. In 1747 Callao, the port of Lima, at the distance of some miles, was overthrown by an earthquake, and entirely washed away by the reflux of the waves. In the valley or plain of Lima rain is scarcely ever known, because the water of the clouds is deposited on the lofty mountains in the vicinity. A great quantity of silver and gold is coined in this city. Cusco, the ancient capital of the Peruvian monarchy, and Quito, situated on the Sierra beneath the highest Andes, are considerable places in this province.

Buenos Ayres (so called from its salubrity) the capital of the vice-royalty of that name, seated on the south side of the estuary of the river de la Plata, enjoys a great share of commerce, on account of its communication with Old Spain, and still more from the contraband trade with the Portuguese in Brazil. The access to it is difficult and dangerous, on account of shoals in the river. It is the resort of those who wish to cross the country to the Peruvian provinces, instead of sailing round by the southern point of the peninsula. The circumjacent districts are very fertile, and especially abound in horned cattle. Montevideo, on the opposite side of the same estuary, flourishes through the advantage of a commodious harbour.

The chief town of New Granada is Santa Fe de Bogota. Carthagena, in this viceroyalty, is a rich and populous seaport, strongly fortified. Other towns of consequence in Spanish South America are, St. Jago in Chili, Potosi, Guayaquil, La Paz, and Panama. The last, situated on a bay on the south side of the isthmus of Darien, is the receptacle of all the gold, silver, and other articles produced by Peru and

Chili, which are here stored for conveyance to Europe. In its harbour is a great pearl-fishery.

The principal commodities exported from these dominions of Spain, beside the precious metals, are sugar, chocolate, cotton, vicuna and other wool, Peruvian bark, and great quantities of tallow, hides, and salted provisions.

## PORTUGUESE DOMINIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA.

AT the time when the kingdom of Portugal was pushing its discoveries and conquests in the East Indies, one of its squadrons was carried by contrary winds to the eastern coast of South America, at a part to which the Spanish navigators had not yet penetrated, and took possession of a large district, now the principal foreign territory belonging to that nation. This is BRAZIL, a country extending on the coast from the 3d degree of north to the 32d of south latitude, and internally to an indefinite distance; forming one of the finest and richest colonies settled in the New World by an European power. Almost every valuable product of Spanish South America is met with in Brazil, which has the additional advantage of lying on the side of the continent opposite to Europe.

Of this wide tract the interior parts are little known, the Portuguese settlements being chiefly on the coast, and upon the Maragnon or river of Amazons. A considerable river, the St. Francisco, runs parallel to the coast for some degrees; and one of longer course, the Tocomantin, unites many of the streams of the back country, and discharges them into the sea not far from the mouth of the Maragnon. Other streams of Brazil flow into the Parana and Paraguay.

Almost all the vegetable products of the tropical regions are to be met with in perfection, native or cultivated, in Brazil. The fruits, in particular, are of numerous kinds and exquisite flavour; and a variety of aromatics presented by nature afford the condiments to food which are so salutary and grateful in the hot climates. Of cabinet and dying woods there are many species. Rice, coffee, chocolate, sugar, cotton, indigo, and tobacco of a remarkably fine flavour, are commodities of exportation. The herds of wild cattle on the banks of the Marag-

non and other rivers are not less numerous than those in the Spanish dominions.

The gold-mines of Brazil are said to be as rich as any in South America. They are situated among the mountains inland, some as remote as the sources of the rivers of Paraguay. A gem peculiar to this country is the Brazilian diamond, inferior in brilliancy and clearness to that of Golconda, but still much valued by lapidaries. A particular species of topaz is also among its precious stones.

This fine province is divided into several independent governments, but that of Rio de Janeiro gives to its governor the title of viceroy of the Brazils. The city of St. Sebastian, usually named Rio de Janeiro, after the river on which it is seated, possesses a fine and capacious harbour, and is surrounded by a fertile country, abounding in the necessities and luxuries of life. It is large and well built, and has a dockyard and naval arsenal, with many public edifices, especially of those devoted to religion. The inhabitants are wealthy, indolent, and much addicted to show and parade. The situation is reckoned unhealthy, on account of the thick forests in the neighbourhood. Negro slaves are numerous in the whole province.

The ancient capital of Brazil was St. Salvador in the bay of All Saints. The other towns are of little consequence ; and the Portuguese settlements are but thinly scattered along the coast. If a more active and intelligent nation were in possession of Brazil, it might be rendered one of the most flourishing and important of the trans-atlantic colonies of Europe.

The natives subsisting in this country live chiefly apart in different tribes between Rio de Janeiro and St. Salvador, and are regarded as irreclaimable savages.

## FRENCH POSSESSIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA.

THE French nation occupies a tract of land on the coast of Guiana, about 240 miles in length, of which the principal place is Cayenne, situated upon a small island, and usually giving name to the whole settlement. The soil of this district is rich, and the climate is favourable to the growth of all the tropical products; but no great advantages have hitherto been derived from this colony to the mother country.

Cayenne itself is in a marshy unwholesome situation, which has proved fatal to many of the victims of the late political convulsions in France, who were punished by transportation thither. The chief articles of export are sugar, cotton, indigo, and that kind of pepper which is commonly called Cayenne pepper.

## DUTCH POSSESSIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA.

**THESE** are likewise a part of Guiana, and are situated to the north-west of the French territory. They consist of a line of low coast about 350 miles in extent, intersected with numerous slow rivers or creeks, the banks of which are generally highly fertile, but, from the moisture of the soil and heat of the climate, singularly unhealthy. Thick forests overspread the back country, impeding the free circulation of the air, and augmenting its humidity. This description applies to Guiana in general, as far as it is colonized or explored by Europeans. The vegetation of such a soil and climate cannot but be rank ; and among many useful and medicinal plants are found some of the most deadly poisons of the vegetable kingdom. Serpents of an enormous size, and other loathsome or noxious reptiles and insects, also abound, to the great enrichment of the naturalist's catalogue, though to the annoyance of the inhabitant and cultivator.

Dutch Guiana is usually called Surinam, the principal settlement being upon the river of that name. The chief town is Paramaibo, a place of considerable traffic. Other settlements are upon the rivers Demarara, Essequibo, Berbice, and Cor-entin. The industry of the Dutth has rendered them very productive in sugar-cane, cotton, and other articles of West India culture ; but their severe treatment of the negro slaves has often driven them to a revolt, attended with much mischief to the plantations. A great proportion of the settlers from Europe, in the pursuit of fortune, dies of the fatal diseases of the country.

Dutch Guiana has lately been conquered by the British, who hold possession of it at present.



## THE WEST INDIA ISLANDS.

**BEFORE** we enter upon the West India Islands properly so called, it will be expedient to describe a small detached group named, from two different discoverers, the **BERMUDAS** or **SOMMER ISLANDS**. They lie some degrees east of the coast of North America, about the 32d degree of N. latitude, and are four in number. They are under the English dominion, and have a population of about 9000 persons, white and black. The principal town is St. George, the residence of the governor. The climate is fine; the products are few and of little value. These islands are chiefly inhabited by sea-faring people, who carry on a petty traffic with America and the West Indies.

The central part of the American continent, where the northern portion contracts to a narrow neck before it terminates in the isthmus connecting it with the southern, is fronted by a range of Islands extending from the southern point of East Florida to Guiana, and presenting a convex line to the Atlantic ocean. Within are two distinct expanses of sea; the gulf of Mexico, formed by the shores of North America and the western part of the island of Cuba; and the Caribbean sea, inclosed between the principal range of islands and the coasts of New Spain and of South America. The general appearance of this terra-queous region is as if at some remote period the ocean had made a violent incursion upon the American continent, and had torn away a vast mass of land, leaving in an insular state all the elevated spots which were capable of resisting its fury.

When Columbus made his first voyage westward, with the expectation of coming to the East Indies by a shorter track, these islands lay in his way, and were his first discovery. The prevailing idea of India caused them and the circumja-

cent continent to be included in the appellation of Indies, with the epithet West, to distinguish them from the proper Indies of the east ; and the name, however erroneous in its origin, has remained.

Though some of these islands are of considerable magnitude, yet their aggregate mass is much inferior to that of the islands in the East Indies. Their greater proximity to Europe, and the opportunity which they afforded of ready colonization, have, however, rendered them more important than the others in the political and commercial system of the European maritime nations.

On approaching from the north, the first islands that occur are the **BAHAMAS** or **LUCAYOS**, stretching in a long line south easterly from the coast of East Florida. They are very numerous ; but being narrow strips of land, mostly steril, and forming very intricate channels, they are little frequented, except for the purposes of privateering or illicit trade. One of them, named Guanahani, is celebrated as the first spot of the New World descried by Columbus, who, as a memorial of deliverance, gave it the appellation of St. Salvador. The island called Providence is the principal seat of a colony settled in the Bahamas by the English about 1720. Many of the others are uninhabited ; and the settlers in the whole group are few. The exports are cotton, dying woods, live turtle, and salt, which is procured in various places from the seawater by the heat of the sun. Several vessels called wreckers frequent these islands, attracted by the numerous wrecks of trading ships in their passage along the channels between the Bahamas and the coast of Florida on one side, and that of Cuba on the other.

**CUBA.** This is the largest of the West India Islands. Its length is 700 miles, and mean breadth about 70. It is divided in the direction of its length by a chain of mountains, from which rivers of short course descend each way. Its coasts afford many excellent harbours.

Cuba was one of the discoveries of Columbus, and was subdued by a small number of Spaniards, before whom the native inhabitants disappeared, leaving a wide waste, which colonization seems very imperfectly to have filled. In fact, the Spaniards, always in search of gold, and prodigal in the vast extent of their easily-acquired territories, have been very negligent cultivators of the soil, and inattentive to the ordinary objects of commerce. Cuba produces a considerable quantity of sugar, and its tobacco is in high estimation. It affords valuable woods and aromatic plants, and its forests abound in wild cattle and swine. Some gold is found in the sand of its streams ; but its most valuable mineral product is copper of excellent quality, with which, in the form of utensils, it supplies the other Spanish colonies. The treasures of this island seem little explored by its possessors, and the greater part is said to be in a state of nature.

Its capital, the Havanna, is a place of great note and importance, on account of its harbour, the usual station of the principal maritime force of Spanish America, and the place of rendezvous for the ships laden with the wealth of all the settlements on their homeward voyage. The city is strongly fortified, populous, and well built ; and carries on a great trade with foreign countries.

**HISPANIOLA or ST. DOMINGO.** To the south-east of Cuba lies the second in size of the West India islands, of which the native name, Hayti, was changed into Hispaniola by the Spaniards. This was their first settlement in the New World. It is about 400 miles in length, by a breadth of 100 ; and may be regarded in point of value as the principal of the whole group. The internal parts are mountainous, and in many places scarcely accessible. The cultivated spots are chiefly about the coasts, which are highly fertile, but singularly pernicious to the European constitution. The Spaniards, who destroyed the natives soon after they took possession, made St. Domingo their capital, the name of which was popularly extended over the whole island.

In the progress of the French revolution Hispaniola was ceded to France. Unfortunately, the precipitation with which all the rights of citizens were communicated to the mulattoes, followed by the abolition of negro slavery, brought on a series of internal commotions, which, after the most horrid scenes of bloodshed and cruelty, have terminated in the expulsion of the French from almost all parts of the island, and the establishment of a state of negroes in the midst of their enslaved countrymen. A negro general named Dessalines has assumed the title of emperor of Hayti. The exports of this valuable island are sugar, rum, coffee, cotton, indigo.

JAMAICA, situated to the south of the eastern part of Cuba, is the third island in size being about 170 miles in length and 60 in breadth. It has a central ridge of considerable height, covered with forests, called the Blue Mountains. Numerous rivulets fertilize the lower parts of the country; and spots frequently occur of extraordinary picturesque beauty. The climate near the coast is extremely sultry, but the elevation of the interior country affords choice of temperature. This island, first colonized by the Spaniards, was conquered by the English in 1655, and constitutes their principal possession in the West Indies.

The variety of soil and situation, and the quantity of land, give Jamaica the advantage of providing in great measure for its own wants with respect to the necessities of life, beside a large cultivation of staple commodities for exportation. Its population is computed at 30000 whites, 250000 blacks, and about 10000 free negroes and mulattoes. Its annual exports, consisting of sugar, rum, coffee, indigo, ginger, and pimento, are valued at about 8890000 dollars.

From the opulence and importance of this island the English Creole character appears in it with peculiar distinction. It is spirited, generous, and liberal, quick and eager, but deficient in steadiness and patient industry; inclined to excess of every kind, lavish, and improvident. The moral qualities of the Creoles are injured by great neglect and indulgence in education, and by the early habit of commanding

slaves, which encourages an imperious and unfeeling disposition in both sexes.

The principal commercial town of Jamaica is Kingston, a sea-port on the northern coast. It is opulent and populous, and the merchants live in a style of great splendour. St. Jago, or Spanish-town, is the seat of government. Port-royal, situated on a fine bay, was accounted the best harbour, but has been reduced by repeated earthquakes and other calamities. It still contains the royal navy-yard, arsenal, and barracks. The colonial government of Jamaica, like that of all the English islands, consists of a governor or captain-general, a council nominated by the crown, and a house of assembly elected by the freeholders.

PORTO-RICO, the next of the larger islands, about 120 miles in length and 40 in breadth, lies directly to the east of Hispaniola. It belongs to Spain, and is reckoned a fertile and beautiful country, but is only partially cultivated, which is probably the cause of its unhealthiness. Cattle, horses, and mules are bred here for the use of the other Spanish colonies, and rice and maize are exported. There are few sugar plantations, and the proportion of slaves to freemen is the reverse of that which prevails in the other islands.

It is observable that all the large islands above described have their greatest extent in the direction of east and west.

The CARIBBEE ISLANDS is the general appellation of that group or range which stretches in a curve line from Porto-Rico to the coast of South America, occupying a space from the 11th to the 18th or 19th degree of N. latitude. They are likewise called the Antilles, and the Leeward Islands; but our mariners make a distinction as to the latter name, applying it only to the most northerly half, while they distinguish the remainder by the title of the Windward Islands. None of them much surpass the rest in point of magnitude, and they have a general resemblance in products, though some are more fertile and better cultivated than others.

These islands have been colonized by different European nations, as the English, French, Dutch, Danes, and Swedes. The greater number belongs to the first two nations, and, according to the events of the frequent wars between them, often change masters; but the most important generally return to their former possessors at a peace. The British islands are Barbadoes, Antigua, St. Christopher's; St. Vincent's, Grenada, Dominica, Montserrat, Nevis, and Tortola: the French are Martinique, Guadaloupe, and some inferior ones: the Danish, St. Croix, and St. Thomas: the Dutch, St. Eustatius: the Swedish, St Bartholomew.

BARBADOES is the oldest and most fully cultivated among the English islands, and, indeed, is one of the most populous spots on the globe. Though in extent it is only 20 miles by 13, yet it is reckoned to contain above 16000 whites and 62000 blacks. GAUDALOUPE is the largest of these islands, including its two detached ports of Grandterre and Basseterre; but MARTINIQUE is the residence of the governor of all the French islands.

Most of the Caribbee islands are nearly plain in their surface, but some have ridges of hills with steep precipitous sides. Some of them labour under a total want of springs of fresh water: upon the whole, however, they are pleasant and fertile, and yield abundantly the usual products of the tropical regions. The heat of a vertical sun is allayed by the daily vicissitudes of the sea and land breezes, and by the periodical rains which generally set in at the hottest season of the year. The principal evil to which they are subject is the terrible hurricanes by which, at uncertain periods, they are visited, frequently to the entire destruction of their crops, and the demolition of buildings, with the loss of many lives. Those islands which are low and imperfectly cleared are seldom free from the mortal diseases of the tropical climates, of which the most dreaded is the yellow fever. Their exports are chiefly the different products of the sugar-cane, with coffee and cotton.

The West India trade is a source of great profit to the nations which possess colonies in the islands, both on account of

of the articles of re-exportation which they afford for the general demand of Europe, and of the manufactured goods and other commodities which they take from the mother countries. Britain, in particular, is benefited to a large amount by these different sources of traffic. On the other hand, she is at a vast expense for their protection in time of war, and finds them a great drain upon her military and naval force. The United States of America, without the possession of any West Indian colonies, carry on a very lucrative commerce with them in articles of provision and lumber, with which no other country can so well supply them. Indeed, in time of war they are absolutely necessary to the subsistence of the islands.

Beside the islands above enumerated, there are others more nearly connected with the coasts of the American continent. Of these there is a group running along the northern coast of South America, beginning on the east with Trinidad, a considerable island, lately ceded to Britain. It is represented as fertile, and provided with a secure and capacious harbour, but is at present little cultivated. There is in this island a remarkable lake of petroleum, or fossil oil, which affords a valuable object of exportation, as being the best preservative of the bottoms of ships from the worms which are so destructive to them in the West Indies and the warm climates of America. It lies favourably for carrying on a contraband trade with the Spanish settlements on the main, which is, perhaps, its chief value. Curazao and Bonair, belonging to the Dutch, are probably held chiefly for the same purpose. The former, however, is well cultivated.

The eastern side of South America is almost destitute of islands. Near the southern extremity, about S. latitude 52°, occur the isles called FALKLAND by the English, and MALOVIN by the French. They are situated in a very inclement climate, with a barren soil, and seem to afford nothing but penguins and other sea-fowl, the seal tribe, and fish. They belong to Spain, and probably are at present quite deserted.

The large island, or rather mass of islands, called **TERRA DEL FUEGO**, separated from the extremity of South America by the long and narrow strait of Magellan, lying between the 53d and 55th degrees of S. latitude, is left entirely to the natives, a wretched and squalid race, shivering with perpetual cold, and supporting life on a scanty supply of shell-fish, or whatever else capable of being eaten the ocean may throw on their shores. No people on the globe seem so much the outcasts of nature, or so destitute of human skill and contrivance; and in them the man appears distinguished from the brute only by more unsupplied wants. Yet the land affords grass and various plants, and is not unfurnished with trees. It rises into high hills, buried in eternal frost and snow. The volcanic flames emitted from some of them gave the country its appellation of The Land of Fire.

On the western side of South America, after a number of small isles, the considerable one of **CHILOE** occurs, situated off the coast of Chili, in S. latitude  $42^{\circ}$  to  $44^{\circ}$ . It is possessed and settled by the Spaniards, who have assembled in it a pretty numerous population of mulattoes and converted natives.

More remote from the coast, about S. latitude  $34^{\circ}$ , is the little spot called **JUAN FERNANDEZ**, known for the welcome refreshment which it has afforded to navigators from its goats and wild vegetables. A sailor of the name of Alexander Selkirk was left on this island, and lived in solitude some years, which gave the hint of the very popular and instructive romance of Robinson Crusoe.

The **GALLAPAGOS** are a group of uninhabited isles, advancing some degrees into the Pacific ocean, and lying under the equator. They are much resorted to by turtle, on which account ships sometimes pay them a visit.



## ISLANDS IN THE PACIFIC OCEAN,

THE vast ocean which occupies the space between America and Asia, and extends indefinitely toward the south pole, is studded with a great number of islands, mostly of small dimensions, and forming groups which have engaged the peculiar attention of late navigators. To describe them distinctly, it will be necessary to make a geographical division of the Pacific ocean into two parts, the north and the south of which the equator is the boundary line.

Due west from the point of California, about one third across the ocean, a group of islands is seen, first discovered by the great navigator Cook, and named by him the SANDWICH ISLANDS. Of these the principal, called by the natives Owhyhee, is reckoned 280 miles in circumference, and lies about the 20th degree of N. latitude. The climate is temperate, and the land is fertile and abundant in all the necessities of life. Yams, plantains, the bread-fruit, and the sugar-cane, are among the cultivated vegetables. Of quadrupeds there are but few species; a circumstance common to all the islands of this ocean. Hogs are reared in great numbers, and dogs occasionally add to the delicacies of the table. Fish are plentiful, and form a great part of the food of the inhabitants.

The Sandwich islanders are a personable race, muscular and well-proportioned, of a deep olive complexion. They are represented as mild, friendly, and hospitable, a character which they deserve from their general conduct to navigators, though the people of Owhyhee have incurred a stain from the

massacre of captain Cook in a sudden fit of resentment. Other islands have since been the scene of similar outrages. In such cases, which are frequent in the communications between European mariners and the inhabitants of the coasts termed savage, the origin of the quarrel is almost universally some theft committed by the natives, which is punished too hastily and severely by the visitors : sometimes indeed it is a retaliation by the former of an injury inflicted by the latter, who are too apt to regard their superiority of power and knowledge as giving them the right of lords and masters.

In these islands the civil authority is possessed by a supreme chief with the assistance of subordinate chiefs, and there are different classes of society in regular gradation. The religion is a species of idolatry, and admits human sacrifices. The people display considerable ingenuity in the manufacture of their utensils and articles of dress. Some of the islands appear to be extremely populous.

Considerably further to the west, and declining a little to the south, are situated the LADRONES or MARIAN ISLANDS, long known to Europeans, as being in the track of the ships sailing from Acapulco to the Philippine islands. This passage was for a long course of years made by the Spanish galleons, which were sure, when they got clear of the American coast, of falling in with steady easterly winds that bore them, often without shifting a sail for weeks, across this wide ocean within a certain time. They never failed to call for refreshment at these islands, which, when first discovered, were inhabited by a people much resembling the aboriginal natives of the Philippine and other Indian islands. From their propensity to pilfering, which is almost general among the people of these seas, the islands obtained the name of Ladrones or Thieves isles. The group consists of 12 or 14, mostly uninhabited. Guam, the largest, is populous, and has a Spanish garrison. It abounds in fruits and other refreshments grateful to mariners. Tinian has been rendered famous by the enraptured description of its beauties in the relation of Anson's voyage ; but later navigators have not found its charms equal to their

expectations. The natives of the Ladrões are ingenious, and their canoes, called flying proas, the swiftest vessels that sail upon the sea, have been deemed extraordinary specimens of contrivance in nautical mechanics.

To the south and south-east of the Ladrões is scattered the numerous group of the CAROLINE ISLES. These were discovered by the Spaniards in 1686, and named from their king Charles II. Their inhabitants are said to resemble those of the Philippines, and to subsist chiefly on fish and cocoa-nuts.

In the line of the preceding, but nearer to the Philippines, lie the PELEW ISLANDS, which the accidental circumstance of an English ship's being wrecked upon one of them has lately made the subject of an ample and interesting description. The isles are few in number and small, clothed with wood, and productive of the usual tropical vegetables, but destitute of useful quadrupeds. The singularly mild and amiable character of the natives, who live in a state of great simplicity, has been exhibited in very pleasing colours in the publication alluded to; but perhaps it should be taken with some abatement. It appears that the islanders are constantly at war with one another, and that they invariably put their captives to death; and the kindness shown to the wrecked English was in part purchased by their compliance with the request of the chief of Pelew to assist him with their fire-arms in his attacks upon his neighbours. A strong desire of improving by the arts of civilization distinguished their chief.

Returning towards the east, and crossing the equator to the south Pacific ocean, we find a group of islands about the middle of the sea, which the Spaniards, its first discoverers, named the MARQUESAS. These islands are chiefly remarkable for the beauty and comparatively fair complexions of the inhabitants, who are said to be perfect models of symmetry of shape, with fine regular features; and some of the women are nearly as fair as southern Europeans. In manners and customs they much resemble the people of the islands to be next

described, and the natural products appear to be of the same kind.

The SOCIETY ISLES lie a short distance to the south of the Marquesas, and form a very numerous assemblage, spread over a large space of sea. They have been made particularly known to Europe by the modern visits of many navigators, with whom the people and their country seem to have been singular favourites. The softness of the climate, the beauty of the face of nature, the abundance of refreshments, the general mild and hospitable disposition of the natives, considerably justify this partiality.

Of these islands the largest and most celebrated is Otaheite, called and pronounced by the French Taiti. It is about 120 miles in circumference, and consists of two peninsulas, each rising to a mountain in the centre. Its position is about  $17^{\circ} 30'$  of S. latitude, and  $149^{\circ} 30'$  of W. longitude from Greenwich. The fertile soil produces in plenty the bread-fruit, the plantain, the cocoa, yams, and other esculent roots. The domestic animals are only hogs, dogs, and poultry, unless permanent additions have been made by the presents from Europe. The people of Otaheite are a remarkably mild and gentle race, kind and sociable, easily moved, and quickly passing from one emotion to another; the children of nature, in whom "the tear is forgot as soon as shed;" licentious in their manners, as being natives of a luxurious climate, and without moral restraints; addicted to theft through a want of just ideas of property, but equally ready to give as to take. Their complexion is olive, varying in depth of hue according to their different exposure to the sun. They have black eyes and hair, good teeth, soft skin, and elegantly formed limbs. Their faces are broad, and noses flat, but their features are, upon the whole, agreeable. They are cleanly in their persons to the greatest nicety, and polished in their habits of life.

The language of these islands is extremely soft and melodious, abounding in vowels; and the natives are incapable of pronouncing many of our consonants. They practise many ingenious manufactures for clothing, furniture, and the other

wants of their simple mode of life. Each island has its king or chief; and there is an order of nobility or persons of rank, generally distinguished by superiority of size and strength. In religion they are polytheists, and have a priesthood possessed of considerable power. Their burial-places or morais are held sacred, and human victims are occasionally sacrificed. War is one of the chief pests of this, as of almost all countries, savage or civilized, and the different islands are often engaged in destructive hostilities with one another. The population is great, and probably a difficulty of subsistence is sometimes felt.

Parallel to the Society Isles, but further to the west, lies a scattered group, named by Cook the FRIENDLY ISLES. Parts of it were formerly discovered, and the principal island, Tongataboo, was called Amsterdam by a Dutch navigator. In products, manners, and customs, these so nearly resemble the islands last described, that it is unnecessary to repeat particulars. It is said that the people are of a graver and more sedate disposition than those of Otaheite, and under a stricter government; and that they display more industry and ingenuity. Tongataboo is described as one of the best cultivated spots on the globe.

The islands called by the French NAVIGATOR'S ISLES, on account of the skill of the people in fabricating and managing their canoes, are a part of this group. They are represented as well cultivated, and abounding in provisions. The inhabitants are very numerous, of great strength and stature, ferocious, and treacherous to strangers. Their language partakes of the dialect of the Malays, from whom they seem also to have derived their dispositions. On approaching nearer to New Holland, a large island occurs, which our navigators have named NEW CALEDONIA, with an attached group called the NEW HEBRIDES. The natives seem of a different race from those of the more eastern islands, and are less personable. Tanna, one of the group, has a remarkable volcano.

Hence we shall make a great stretch to the south to visit the large and remarkable islands called **NEW ZEALAND**. These are two nearly equal islands, extending from north-east to south-west, from about the 34th to the 47th degree of S. latitude. The country was first discovered and named by the Dutch navigator Tasman, but not explored till visited by Cook. The islands are much longer than broad, and are separated by a narrow strait. They are in general mountainous, and some of their summits are so lofty as to be covered with perpetual snow. No country is clothed with trees of more luxuriant growth or finer verdure; and the climate is temperate, though subject to violent storms. Of the vegetable products the most important is a fine species of flax, of long staple and silky texture.

The New Zealanders are a tall and comely race, scarcely browner than the southern Europeans, savage, ferocious, and fearless. They possess few arts of life, but display ingenuity in the structure of their canoes. Their chief food is fish, and the root of a kind of fern instead of bread. The perpetual hostilities in which they are engaged with one another probably prevent any culture of the land. They devour the bodies of prisoners and the slain with brutal greediness. Suicide is frequent among them, and they seem to have no dread of death. They are of unsafe intercourse to strangers, and possess nothing to tempt cupidity. Late voyagers, however, have frequently touched at their harbours, which afford great conveniences for wooding, watering, and refitting.

To complete our survey of islands in the southern Pacific ocean it is now necessary to return near the equator, where several considerable masses of land fill up the space to the north of the New Hebrides as far as the great Asiatic group.

The most easterly of these are the **SOLOMON ISLES**, called by the navigator Bougainville the Land of the Arsaçides. By the Spaniards, who first discovered them, they are said to be rich in gold: little, however, is known of them or their inhabitants.

Islands imperfectly surveyed, and named **NEW BRITAIN** and **NEW IRELAND**, next succeed. They possess the rich vegetable products of the tropics, and the nutmeg-tree is abundant in New Britain. The natives are black, with woolly heads, numerous, and skilful in managing their canoes.

Further to the west, and directly north of **New Holland**, lies the **LAND OF PAPUA**, otherwise **NEW GUINEA**, which may rank among the largest islands of the globe. Its separation from New Britain was ascertained by Dampier, and from New Holland by Cook. Whether the north-western part be detached from the rest, or only peninsulated, is not certainly known; but, if the whole be considered as one island, it will extend in length more than 1200 miles, with an average breadth of about 300. Its coasts are for the most part lofty; and towards the centre, mountain is seen to rise above mountain richly clothed with wood. The shores are lined with cocoa-trees, and there is a general aspect of luxuriance which invites to a more intimate acquaintance with the country than Europeans have yet obtained. The plumage of the birds is particularly splendid. The famed birds of Paradise, of which there are several species, have their principal residence in Papua and the neighbouring isles, feeding on the wild nutmegs which abound in these regions. Numerous parrots and lories, and the beautiful crowned pigeon, add to the gayety of the landscape.

The people are unworthy of so fine a country. They are black, with rough and scarred skins, large eyes, flat noses, excessively wide mouths, thick lips, hair woolly, and frizzled out to an enormous bush. The habitations of those on the coast are built upon stages in the water. In the interior some of the natives are in so rude a state, and so much accustomed to mutual hostility, that they lodge upon trees, which they ascend by a notched pole, drawing it up after them. The Papuans carry on a trifling commerce with the Chinese, from whom they procure the few utensils which they want. No European nation has yet been tempted to form a settlement on this desirable land.

Some islands adjacent to Papua may be considered as forming a chain between those of the Pacific and of the Indian oceans. At its north-west point is situated WAIJOO, which has been estimated to contain 100000 inhabitants. SALWATTI is a populous island in its vicinity. The natives of both these islands resemble the Papuans in feature and savage manners. To the south are the AROO islands, a great resort of the birds of Paradise, which form a small object of traffic. Sago is a principal article of food in these parts. The general products are the same as those of the great range of Indian isles which immediately succeed.



## NEW HOLLAND.

WE reserve for the concluding article this extensive country, which, being detached by position from the other great divisions of the globe, and of magnitude almost sufficient to constitute one of itself, could neither be properly included in any of the four received quarters, nor be adequately considered merely as one of the islands of the Pacific ocean. It has, indeed, been made a matter of dispute whether, on account of its size, it ought not rather to bear the name of a continent; but this is a mere verbal contest, since no one denies that the geographical definition of an island applies to it, as being everywhere surrounded by water. The name of New Holland, imposed upon it by the Dutch navigators, to whom it was only partially known, is singularly unsuitable to a vast region, to which the proper Holland is but as a spot. Whether the proposed name of Notasia (Southern Asia) or any new appellation, will ever supersede that which custom has fixed upon it, is very doubtful.

New Holland is situated between the Indian and Pacific oceans, directly south of New Guinea, and the Indian Archipelago, between the 11th and 38th degrees of S. latitude. Its greatest extent is from east to west, being computed at about 2730 statute miles : from north to south it stretches about 1930 miles. The latter computation excludes Van Diemen's land, which was formerly reckoned a part of it, but is now found to be a separate island, with a strait intervening. In the general view, as far as yet discovered, New Holland is a solid mass of land, little broken by gulfs or estuaries, the principal inden-

tation being that made by the gulf of Carpentaria, on the northern side ; but much remains to be done for a complete investigation of the coasts, whilst almost the whole of the interior is absolutely unknown.

This country had only been occasionally touched upon by navigators, chiefly on its northern and western sides, when Cook, in 1770, accurately examined its eastern coast, and took possession of it in the name of the king of Great Britain. By an additional absurdity in nomenclature it was called New South Wales. A project was afterwards adopted of making it a place of transportation of offenders from England, which was carried into execution in 1787. From that period the country and its products have excited much attention, and our acquaintance with them has been continually improving.

Of the climate of such an extensive tract no general account can be given. Situated on the south side of the equator, its seasons are the reverse of ours. The parts best known are subject to extremes of heat and cold, but have, upon the whole, an agreeable temperature and steady seasons. Thunder is frequent in summer, and the lightning is often destructive. Of the mountains and rivers very little is known. A chain of mountains is described on the south-eastern side about 50 or 60 miles inland, running north and south. No river has yet been discovered proportional in breadth and depth of water to the magnitude of the island.

The soil in some parts is rich, and affords a variety of plants which have not yet been described by botanists. Tall trees cover large tracts of land, and cargoes of timber for the British navy have lately been taken from the coast.

The zoology of New Holland has afforded some remarkable instances of deviation from the ordinary plan of animal conformation as observed in other parts of the world. Among the few quadrupeds several resemble the opossum genus, by the pouch with which the female is furnished for the refuge of her young after birth. They have likewise an extraordinary disproportion between the fore and hind legs, the latter of which almost solely are used for progressive motion. The largest of these is the kangaroo, of which there are several

species, some equal in size to a sheep. A strange combination of different orders of animals is shown in the platypus, which, to the body and head of a quadruped, joins the bill of a duck. Some of the fish are said also to exhibit strange mixtures of different kinds. There is, in short, every appearance of an originality in the exertions of creative power in this detached part of the globe, and very interesting discoveries for naturalists may be expected when its interior shall be fully explored. See White's *Journal of a Voyage to New South Wales*.

The human natives seem to approach more nearly to the brutal state than most other savage races that have been discovered. They are partly black, partly of a copper hue, with long hair, thick eyebrows and lips, flat noses, sunken eyes, and very wide mouths; of low stature and ill made, with remarkably slender limbs. In some the general resemblance to the monkey tribe is shockingly striking. Their arts are extremely rude; their manners barbarous and filthy; their natural affections cold. They practise no culture of the land, but feed on fish and such animals as fall in their way.

The colony of convicts settled by the English has been made under no favourable auspices; and it may be long before the taint of original moral corruption, continually renovated by fresh accessions of criminals, shall be so far diluted by a majority of settlers of a better description as to produce a generally decent community. Yet the colony has rapidly increased in numbers and in the conveniences of life. At Port Jackson, a fine harbour (which was preferred to the first-chosen spot, Botany bay) a handsome town has been erected, and made the seat of government. Agriculture has extended to some distance round it. Wheat and other esculent vegetables have been found to succeed well, and are cultivated on a large scale. The domestic animals imported have multiplied and become naturalized. A breed of sheep with fleeces said to rival those of Spain already presents an object for exportation. Some horned cattle, which strayed to a distance from the settlement, have produced a numerous wild herd, which is likely in process of time to overspread the meads of this country.

as was done in the savannahs of America. A discovery of extensive beds of fossil coal on the southern coast promises to be of great future utility.

VAN DIEMEN'S LAND, which may be regarded as an appendage of New Holland, is an island about 140 miles in length and 70 in breadth. It appears to be a varied country, well wooded and watered, with productions similar to those of the neighbouring main land. Its inhabitants are black, with woolly hair, and in the savage state. Some small islands are scattered in the intervening strait.

Upon the whole, it seems no extravagant speculation to foresee, in this wide waste on the other side of the globe, a new empire rising, with European arts and manners, which may one day act a distinguished part on the theatre of mankind.

THE END.

## APPENDIX.

### GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF THE EARTH.

THE surface of the terraqueous globe is naturally divided into land and water. The land is divided into three continents, the eastern continent, the western, and New Holland. The eastern continent comprehends Europe, Asia, and Africa; the western, America. The northern hemisphere contains Europe, Asia, the greater part of Africa, and America. The southern hemisphere contains a part of Africa and America, New Holland, and a great number of islands in different parts of that immense ocean which covers most of the southern hemisphere.

Above two thirds of the globe are supposed to be water. Geographers reckon three principal oceans, the Atlantic ocean, the Pacific, and the Southern. The Atlantic ocean lies between the west side of the eastern continent and the east side of America; the Pacific ocean lies between the east side of the eastern continent and the west side of America; the Southern ocean occupies the greater part of the southern hemisphere, and is sometimes called the South sea. Also that part of the Southern ocean which lies between the east side of the southern parts of Africa, the southern coasts of Asia, and New Holland, is often called the Indian ocean. There are many seas, the principal of which are the Mediterranean and the Baltic.

The surface of the earth is very irregular, and diversified with plains and hills, mountains and valleys. From the hills and mountains issue springs of water, which, uniting in

their courses, form rivers and lakes. The rivers flow in various directions through large tracts of country, and are at last discharged into the ocean.

The terraqueous globe contains an infinite variety of animals, plants, and minerals. The human race are dispersed over the habitable parts of the earth, and differ in their persons, languages, laws, religions, and manner of life.

Great changes and revolutions seem to have happened in the earth since its first formation. The rugged and deformed aspect of many of the mountainous tracts of the globe plainly shows that, at different and remote periods, its internal parts must have suffered violent convulsions.

In places remote from the sea,\* in every quarter of the globe, shells and other productions of the ocean are found below the surface of the earth. All the substances called calcareous, as marble, lime-stone, &c. are composed of marine bodies; and in some instances the shells of fishes are distinguishable in them. Sand and pebbles, which have been formed by the friction of water, are found in all countries. Hence it seems probable that the whole earth was originally covered by the ocean.

According to most geologists all the appearances of the internal parts of the earth indicate an aqueous solution or diffusion. Hence they infer that the component parts of the earth, at its first formation, were in a state of solution, and gradually subsided afterwards partly into solid bodies, and partly into fluid, by the mutual action of the particles upon one another, and by their specific gravities. Two celebrated philosophers, Hutton and Playfair, contend that all mineral substances have undergone the action of fire, since the first formation of the earth.† The internal parts of the earth, as far as men have penetrated, are composed of heterogenous matter disposed in strata or beds, which are nearly parallel to one another, and of different densities. The strata generally extend through large

\* The sea is often used for the ocean in general.

† Playfair's Illustrations of the Huttonian Theory of the Earth.

tracts of country, and, perhaps, with some interruptions and varieties, through the globe itself. They are found most regular when the country is flat, being in that case nearly parallel to the horizon, though frequently dipping downward in a certain angle. In many places the beds have an undulating appearance, as where the country consists of gently waving hills and vales. In travelling a mile we perhaps pass over ground composed mostly of sand; in another mile we find it perhaps composed of clay or other substances. This is caused by the edges of the different strata lying with an obliquity to the horizon.

The earth is of a round or spherical figure, which is proved by the following arguments.

1. An eclipse of the moon is caused by the shadow of the earth falling upon the moon; and the curved line which always bounds the shadow upon the moon's disc gave the first indication of the spherical form of the earth. When the moon begins to enter into the shadow of the earth, and a part of its disc is still illuminated by the sun, that part does not appear to be bounded by a straight line, as it would be if the contour of the earth's shadow were rectilinear. It has the form of a luminous crescent, of which the concavity is turned toward the shadow. The same appearance is exhibited at the end of the eclipse, when the moon begins to emerge from the shadow of the earth.

2. The appearance of ships at sea affords a plainer proof of the rotundity of the earth. When a ship goes out to sea the hull first disappears, and afterward the sails. This is evidently owing to the convexity of the water between the ship and the eye, and could not happen if the surface of the sea were plane.

3. The globular figure of the earth has been ascertained by the adventurous project of sailing round it, which has been accomplished by several navigators.

4. All persons who travel far north will observe that the star called the north pole star seems to approach the zenith; and, on the contrary, if they travel from the north toward the

equator, the same star will seem to approach the horizon. Now this apparent change of the elevation of the pole star could not happen if the earth were an extended plane, or of any other figure but a globe. The earth, however, is not perfectly spherical, but is a little flatted at the poles, and somewhat resembles an orange in shape. See Bonnycastle's *Astronomy*, page 244, third edition.

*Temperature and Productions of different Regions of the Earth.*

In the daily rotation of the earth on its axis, the sun illuminates all parts of its surface in succession, and shines directly on the equator, but obliquely on all places situated at a distance from it. This direction of the sun's rays is the cause of the great heat which constantly prevails in the middle regions of the earth, and of its gradual diminution from the equator toward the poles. From this unequal distribution of heat proceed some of the greatest differences on the surface of the earth, with respect to the size and qualities of animals and vegetables; for heat is one of the great principles of life and vegetation. Those countries where heat and moisture prevail are generally fertile, and abound with animal and vegetable products.

In latitudes far distant from the equator islands are warmer in winter and cooler in summer than continents, because they partake more of the equable temperature of the surrounding ocean. In the northern hemisphere countries which lie southward of any sea are warmer than those which lie northward of the same sea, for the winds that should cool the former in winter are tempered by passing to them over the sea, and the winds that should warm the latter in summer are cooled by passing to them over the same sea. A northern or southern bearing of a sea renders a country warmer than if it lay either to the east or west.

Tracts of land which are covered with trees and luxuriant vegetables are colder than those of which the surface is bare



and exposed to the influence of the sun ; for though the temperature of living vegetables alters slowly and with difficulty, yet the evaporation (which produces cold) from their numerous surfaces is known to be much greater than that from the same space of land which is not covered with vegetables. Besides, when vegetables are tall and close, as forests, they exclude the rays of the sun, and shelter the snow and frost of winter from the action of the wind and sun. Hence woody countries are colder than open and cultivated countries in the same latitudes. This fact enables us to account for the amelioration of climate which attends agricultural cultivation.

The countries which lie on each side of the equator, and form a broad space round the globe (commonly called the torrid zone) are richer and more abundant in their productions than countries which are situated at a greater distance from the equator. Trees and plants grow to a vast size, and are covered with leaves, blossoms, and fruits at all times of the year. Insects and reptiles are extremely numerous, and the sting or bite of some of them is painful, or even fatal. The greatest quadrupeds, as the elephant, rhinoceros, and hippopotamus, are natives of these regions ; and the most ferocious and the strongest beasts of prey, as the lion, tiger, and other ravenous animals. The plumage of the birds is more splendid and gay than that of the birds in other parts of the world. It is a remarkable circumstance that few or no singing birds have been found in the tropical regions, whose notes are comparable to those of the birds in the temperate regions of the earth. At a particular time of the year, called the rainy season, storms of rain and thunder are tremendous ; and hurricanes sometimes desolate the face of nature.

At a considerable distance beyond the torrid zone the diminution of heat is so gradual as to produce little difference in the appearance of natural objects.

The productions of the temperate zones are various and valuable, and consist of grain, grass, fruits, &c. and of the most useful animals, as the horse, ox, sheep, &c. The parts of the temperate zones which lie between the latitudes of 35° and 45° seem to be the most desirable on the earth. They are

temperate compared to other parts of the world, and more favourable to the health and happiness of man, and to the exertion of his mental powers.

In the frigid zones the genial influence of the sun gradually declines. The nearer we approach the poles the more barren and dreary the land appears, and the country about the poles is probably destitute of animals and plants. In approaching the north pole trees and plants diminish in number and size, and at length no vegetable products are found, except some mosses and stunted herbs.

Attempts have been made to explore the polar regions, but the immense quantities of snow and ice with which the ocean is always covered, render navigation impracticable. No land has been discovered in the southern frigid zone, which is supposed to consist entirely of water. In winter the sun does not rise for weeks or months together; but the whiteness of the snow, and the constant vivid aurora borealis, compensate, in some degree, the privation of the light of the sun. In summer the sun does not set for an equal space of time, and the polar regions are constantly illuminated with a mild and cheering light. But even in this season frost and snow and stormy weather are not uncommon.

The poet Thomson gives a terrible but sublime description of the polar regions, which however corresponds with the relations of voyagers who have visited them.

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“The Muse

Thence sweeps the howling margin of the main,  
 Where undissolving, from the first of time,  
 Snows swell on snows, amazing ! to the sky ;  
 And icy mountains high on mountains pil'd  
 Seem to the shivering sailor from afar,  
 Shapeless and white, an atmosphere of clouds.  
 Projected huge and horrid o'er the surge  
 Alps frown on Alps ; or rushing hideous down,  
 As if old Chaos was again return'd,  
 Wide'rend the deep, and shake the solid pole.  
 Ocean itself no longer can resist

The binding fury, but, in all its rage  
Of tempest taken by the boundless frost,  
Is many a fathom to the bottom chain'd,  
And bid to roar no more ; a bleak expanse,  
Shagg'd o'er with wavy rocks, cheerless, and void  
Of every life, that from the dreary months  
Flies, conscious southward. Miserable they !  
Who here entangled in the gathering ice,  
Take their last look of the descending sun,  
While full of death, and fierce with tenfold frost,  
The long, long night, incumbent o'er their heads,  
Falls horrible."

THOMSON'S SEASONS.

The middle or tropical regions of the earth, which the ancients supposed to be uninhabitable by reason of the great degree of heat that constantly prevails there, are found to be as populous as other parts of the world. The inhabitants of many tropical countries are little advanced in civilization. The bread fruit tree, the cocoa, the banana, the plantain, &c. grow spontaneously, and supply the indolent natives with food. The excessive heat of those countries debilitates the mind, and renders it incapable of exerting its noblest faculties. Perhaps there is no instance of a native of the torrid zone having attained eminence in the higher branches of science and literature, which are cultivated and flourish in the temperate regions of the earth.

The inhabitants of the torrid zone are gay, volatile, and thoughtless, subject to violent passions ; of mild and gentle dispositions, fond of society and amusements, and ingenious in little arts of necessity or fancy. The despotic will of ignorant and sanguinary rulers is the only law of those oppressed countries. The baleful influence of tyranny and slavery must likewise operate powerfully upon the minds of the people, and tend to debase and enervate them.

Vast tracts of land lie within the tropics ; most of Africa and South America, all the great islands of Asia and two of its great peninsulas. Of these wide regions the Asiatic part is the most populous and civilized. Indeed some of the na-

tions of Asia are considerably advanced in civilization, and are skilful in many of the useful and ornamental arts of life. The clothing of those nations that are in a civilized state is mostly made of silk and cotton, and the food consists chiefly of rice and other vegetables. The religion of some of those countries prohibits the use of animal food, which is rejected with abhorrence.

From the equator toward the poles the people exhibit all the shades of colour from black to white. The African negroes have short, curled, woolly hair, and flat features. The East Indian blacks, who inhabit countries where heat predominates, have long, flowing hair, and features like those of the fairer inhabitants of more temperate climates.

On the north side of the tropic of cancer are all the most famous places on the earth; rich, populous countries, renowned at different periods for war, knowledge, and civilization. The greater part of Asia and North America, a little of Africa, and all Europe, lie in this region of the globe. Countries so widely extended in latitude differ greatly in temperature of the air and productions, and also in the customs and manners of the people. The southern parts of the northern temperate zone resemble the tropical regions in climate and productions. The heat is still excessive, and renders exertions painful; hence the people are effeminate, indolent, and voluptuous. In the middle of the temperate zone the heat is moderate and pleasant during a great part of the year; in the northern part cold prevails, summer is short, and winter is long, severe, and comfortless.

The north west side of the eastern continent, called Europe, has from time immemorial excelled the rest of the world in knowledge and power. It is constantly progressive in learning and civilization, while the rest seems to have been nearly stationary for many centuries.

That part of America which has been settled by Europeans, resembles Europe in manners and civilization. The original inhabitants of America, commonly called Indians, still occupy many parts of the continent; but their number is continually decreasing, and the whole race will probably be extinguished in

time. They are wasting away by the oppression, hostilities, and vicious habits of the white people who settle near their territories.

The greatest abundance of the necessities and conveniences of life is enjoyed in the temperate regions of the earth. There the most happiness prevails, and the least misery is endured; the people are more active and industrious, and possess more knowledge and virtue.

The few inhabitants of the northern frigid zone are inanimate and inactive. Their chief employment is fishing and hunting, by which they gain a scanty and precarious subsistence. During the long and rigorous winters of this inhospitable region the people live in subterraneous habitations, which shelter them from the inclemency of the weather. Their colour is dark, their limbs are thick and strong, and their stature is low, few of them exceeding five feet in height. The faculties of the human mind are chilled and benumbed; as it were, by the severity of the climate, for all the natives of the frigid zone are ignorant, superstitious, timid, and slothful; and none of them were ever known to excel in any of the arts and sciences of the more civilized nations of Europe.

"In every part of the world where man exists, the power of climate operates with decisive influence upon his condition and character. In those countries which approach the extremes of heat and cold this influence is so conspicuous as to strike every observer. Whether we consider man merely as an animal, or as a being endowed with rational powers, which fit him for activity and speculation, we shall find that he has uniformly attained the highest state of improvement in the temperate regions of the globe. There his constitution is most vigorous, his organs most acute, and his form most beautiful: there also he possesses a superior extent of capacity, greater fertility of imagination, more enterprising courage, and a sensibility of heart which gives birth to passions not only ardent but persevering. In this favourite situation he has displayed the utmost extent of his genius in literature, in policy, in commerce, war, and in all the arts which improve and embellish life."

*Robertson's America.*

Climate, soil, laws, religion, customs, food, society, distinctions of rank, and other accidental circumstances, have produced a wonderful variety in the complexion, features, manners, and faculties of the human race. These causes seem adequate to account for all the varieties of external form and aspect, and of the mental faculties and qualities, that are observed among mankind.

*Cause of Colour in the Human Species.*

IN advancing from the equator toward the poles we find the people marked by a distinct and characteristical colour. About the equator the people of the eastern continent are universally black; about the tropics they are of a dark olive colour; on the north side of the tropic of cancer, to about the 70th degree of latitude, we successively discern the olive, the brown, the fair, and the sanguine complexion. Of each of these colours there are several tints or shades. This general uniformity in the effect indicates an influence in the climate, which, under the same circumstances, will always operate in the same manner. The excessive heat is plainly the cause of the black colour which distinguishes the inhabitants of the tropical regions. The colour of the inhabitants of different parts of the earth confirms this hypothesis; for the people of all countries are darker in proportion to the heat of the climate.

Though heat is the principal cause of these variations of colour, yet other causes have a tendency to produce the same effect, as severe labour, hard and scanty diet, constant exposure to the weather, and even intensive cold. Thus, the peasantry of every country are of a darker hue than people of higher rank, who enjoy the conveniencies of life, and are not exposed to the inclemencies of the weather.

*Earthquakes and Volcanoes.*

VOLCANOES are peculiar to no climate, and have no necessary or regular connection with any other mountains, but

seem to have some connection with the sea, for they are generally found in its vicinity. It has been observed that volcanoes often discharge marine substances, as the relics of fish, seaweed, and immense quantities of sea-water. Sir William Hamilton says that the smoke of Vesuvius increases when the sea is agitated and the wind blows from it.

Volcanic mountains are of a conical figure, and the cavity itself, as it appears from the top, is internally of the shape of an inverted cone. This cone is called the crater, through which the *lava* or melted matter generally passes. Sometimes the lava bursts through the sides of the mountain far below the summit.

Islands have sometimes been known to be formed in the sea by volcanoes; and some of the islands in the southern ocean seem to be the tops of volcanic mountains, which have ceased to eject flames and lava.

The internal parts of the earth abound with combustible matter, which, in certain circumstances, will take fire spontaneously. A mineral composed of iron and sulphur is found in the earth in great abundance. It is called *pyrites* or *fire-stone*, and will take fire when moistened with water and exposed to air. The only difficulty which attends the explanation of the origin of volcanoes and earthquakes is, that the presence of air is necessary for the production of flame. Now many minerals when heated afford pure air, a very small quantity of which is sufficient to produce flame. Perhaps air may be supplied from great caverns, which may receive it by openings at a great distance from the crater of the volcano. When, by any means, the combustible matter in the earth takes fire, an earthquake, or an eruption of a volcano, or both, may be the consequence. The melted minerals, and the steam into which the water is converted by the heat, struggle for vent, shake the earth, and burst out where the least resistance is opposed to their passage. Earthquakes are common in the vicinity of volcanoes, and an eruption is always preceded by earthquakes.

For an account of some of the most remarkable and destructive earthquakes and volcanic eruptions, that have happened in modern times, see Gregory's *Economy of Nature*, Vol. II.

*Attraction.*

**ATTRACTION** is properly a part of physics, and the following brief exposition of it is premised here to enable us to explain the nature and cause of the tides, the descent of heavy bodies, and other natural phenomena.

Attraction denotes that power or force by which bodies, or the constituent parts of bodies, approach, or tend to approach one another without any apparent impulse. The cause of this tendency, or the nature of the attractive force, is not known, though the effects, however various in different circumstances, are sufficiently obvious.

The attraction of gravitation or gravity is the power by which distant bodies, as the sun and planets, tend toward one another without any apparent cause impelling them. Gravity is a power which acts upon all bodies, and is the cause of their weight. It is greatest at the surface of the earth, and decreases from the surface upward in a certain proportion.

To the force of gravity are ascribed the annual and diurnal motions of the planets, the flux and reflux of the ocean, and the descent of heavy bodies to the surface of the earth.

Sir Isaac Newton was led to make some of his grand discoveries in mechanical philosophy by seeing an apple fall from a tree. This trivial circumstance induced a train of reflections in his mind, which eventually terminated in the discovery of the principle of universal gravitation, and its application to the sublime theory of the motions of the celestial bodies. His biographers inform us that he began to investigate the cause of the descent of bodies to the earth by reasoning in the following manner. An apple is inanimate, and cannot fall from a tree to the ground of itself, because constant experience teaches us that inanimate things do not possess a power of moving themselves. Therefore some power or force out of the apple must have



acted upon it, otherwise it would have remained for ever where it was, even after it was loosened from the tree by the decay of the stalk which supported it. But every body falls to the earth as well as an apple, when there is nothing to support it. If any body, as a cannon-ball, be projected upward with the greatest force possible, its velocity will diminish gradually, and at length will entirely cease; and then the body will descend to the earth with an increasing velocity. Consequently there must be some *universal* cause of this tendency of bodies to fall to the ground.

Since bodies at a distance from the earth cannot move themselves to it, we must conclude that the earth draws them. But the earth is inanimate, and therefore how can it draw other bodies to it? The superior genius of Newton was able to answer this difficult question. He tells us that there is an universal law of nature, which he calls *attraction*, by virtue of which every particle of matter draws toward it every other particle of matter, with a force proportional to its own weight and distance. Two balls lying on a table have a tendency to come together, and if there were no other bodies by which they were more strongly attracted they would come together; but they are attracted by the table, by the earth, and by every body in the room; and these different attractions act against one another, and destroy one another's effects.

The earth is an immense mass of matter, and attracts with mighty force all things within the limits of its influence, and causes them to fall if they be above its surface. This force is called the *gravitation* of bodies, and is the cause of their weight. Thus, when I lift any thing I act contrary to this force, and therefore the body feels heavy to me; and the heavier it is the more matter it contains, since that increases the attraction of the earth for it. The earth is continually acting upon us by means of its attractive force; but as we are animate beings, and endowed with a power of self-motion, we can overcome its attraction to a certain degree. The reason that a person cannot leap six feet high as well as three feet is this attraction of the earth, which brings him down after it has destroyed the force with which he ascended.

The reader will now be able to understand what he has heard of people living on the other side of the earth. They are called *Antipodes*, because their feet are turned toward ours, and their heads the contrary way. The earth is a vast globe, moving about the sun in boundless space, and continually whirling round its axis, like a top, which is the cause that the sun and stars appear to rise and set. When the sun is on our meridian we have noon or midday, and at the same time our antipodes have midnight; and when the sun is on the opposite meridian our antipodes have midday, and we have midnight. Hence their feet touch the earth, and their heads are directed toward the sky as well as ours; and we are under their feet just as much as they are under ours; both we and they are equally surrounded by the sky, and are retained on the earth by means of its attraction.

The descent of bodies to the earth is a consequence of the universal law in nature, that any body attracts another with a force which is proportional to its own mass or quantity of matter. Hence two bodies situated within the influence of each other would come together, if they were not prevented by some power. The sun is an immense globular body, many thousands of times bigger than the earth, and therefore the earth would be drawn to the sun if it were not prevented by some cause. The reason of this may be explained as follows.

Let a ball be fastened to the end of a string, and whirled round the hand. The ball endeavours to fly off and escape from the hand. The force with which a body thus whirled round continually endeavours to recede from the centre about which it revolves, is called the *centrifugal* force, and is produced by the force or impulse which is given to the body at first, as if you were about to throw it from you. The string by which you hold the ball is the force which draws the ball toward the centre, and is called the *centripetal* force. Thus it appears that two forces act upon the ball at the same time, one force tending to make it fly off from the centre, and the other to retain it. These two forces cause the ball to move in a direction between both, or in a circle. The ball retains this circular motion as long as you continue to whirl it in the same

manner ; but if the string break the ball flies off, and if you cease to whirl the ball it falls toward the hand.

Let us now suppose the sun to be a mighty mass of matter, many thousands of times greater than the earth ; and let us also suppose the earth, as soon as it was created, to have been projected in a straight line, in the same manner as a bowl is projected on a green. The earth would have moved for ever in this line, through the boundless regions of space, if it had not immediately received an impulse from the sun, and been deflected from its rectilinear course by the sun's attraction. By the wonderful power and skill of the deity the force of projection and the force of attraction have been made to counterbalance each other, so that the earth tends to move in a straight line just as much as the sun attracts it toward itself. The earth, in consequence of those two forces acting incessantly upon it, takes a middle course between their directions, and revolves round the sun in an elliptic orbit which is nearly circular. The motion of the earth cannot cease, because the earth revolves round the sun in empty space, where there is no obstacle to retard or prevent its motion. The motion of the earth is not disturbed by the resistance of the atmosphere, because the earth does not move through the atmosphere, but carries the atmosphere with it both in its diurnal rotation about its axis and its annual motion round the sun.

In the immensity of space are all the celestial bodies, which have their several motions. They move continually by means of the force which God has originally impressed upon them. The planets move round the sun, being subject to the same laws of motion as the earth. They are attracted by and revolve round the sun as their common centre of motion, and form, together with the earth, that assemblage of bodies which is called the solar system.

How sublime, and yet how simple are the works of God ! From a few simple principles the most wonderful effects are produced. The stars are all governed by the same invariable law. The single principle of gravitation or attraction pervades the solar system, and probably the whole universe, and attunes every part of it. From the invisible atom to the vast and

immeasurable luminaries of heaven, every thing is subject to its dominating influence. From this active, invisible, and invigorating agent proceed all the order, harmony, beauty, and variety which so eminently distinguish the works of creation,

*Of the Ocean.*

“HAIL! thou inexhaustible source of wonder and contemplation! Hail! thou multitudinous ocean! whose waves chase one another down like the generations of men, and after a momentary space are immersed for ever in oblivion! Thy fluctuating waters wash the varied shores of the world, and while they disjoin nations, whom a nearer connexion would involve in eternal war, they circulate their arts and their labours, and give health and plenty to mankind.

“How glorious! how awful are the scenes which thou displayest! Whether we view thee when every wind is hushed, when the morning sun silvers the level line of the horizon, or when its evening track is marked with flaming gold, and thy unrippled bosom reflects the radiance of the overarching heavens! Or whether we behold thee in thy terrors! when the black tempest sweeps thy swelling billows, and the boiling surge mixes with the clouds, when death rides the storm, and humanity drops a fruitless tear for the toiling mariner whose heart is sinking with dismay!

“When the mind contemplates the flux and reflux of thy tides, which from the beginning of the world were never known to err, how does it shrink at the idea of that divine power which originally laid thy foundations so sure, and whose omnipotent voice hath fixed the limits where thy proud waves shall be stayed!”

*Keate's Sketches from Nature.*

The ocean is salt in all parts of the world; but the degree of saltiness differs in different climates, and is said to be greatest in the equatorial regions, where the heat of the sun is greatest.

The cause of the saltiness of the ocean has been a subject of inquiry among philosophers in almost all ages, but still re-

mains in obscurity. It seems probable that a great quantity of saline matter existed in the earth from the creation. In Poland and other countries immense quantities of common salt are found in the earth. But whether these collections have been derived from the ocean, and deposited in consequence of the evaporation of its waters in certain circumstances, or whether the ocean was originally fresh, and received its salt from collections of saline matter lying at its bottom, or from that brought by the influx of rivers, it cannot now be ascertained. No accurate observations on the degrees of saltiness of the ocean in particular latitudes were made before the 18th century, and therefore it is not possible to ascertain what was the state of the sea at any considerable distance of time, nor consequently whether its degree of saltiness increases, decreases, or is stationary.

From differences among aquatic animals, some of which are adapted to salt water, and some to fresh, it is probable that both salt and fresh water has existed from the creation of the world. There are indeed some kinds of fish, as salmon, &c. that can live both in fresh and salt water; but yet there are some kinds of fish that thrive only in salt water, other kinds in fresh; some in standing pools, others in rapid currents. All circumstances considered, it is probable that the water of the ocean was originally impregnated with that peculiar salt called marine salt, which is the cause of its disagreeable, acrid taste, and medicinal qualities.

The numerous currents in different parts of the ocean are caused by certain obstacles which interrupt the free motion of the water. We see that rocks and contractions in the channels of rivers obstruct the motion of the water, and often occasion rapid currents. So in the ocean rocks of immense size, and channels confined by high, steep sides, must necessarily produce currents.

The sea, like the sky, exhibits the colour of those rays of the sun which prevail in the atmosphere at certain times. As the blue rays predominate in the atmosphere, the colour of the sky and sea is generally blue. The water of the ocean is generally of a leaden hue, but sometimes appears greenish. The

colour of the ocean is caused by the disposition of the water to reflect the rays of light whose colours are exhibited.\*

The sea is sometimes luminous, especially after a storm. This appearance is probably caused by the electrical fire excited by the agitation of the water. It is more commonly seen about the sides of vessels and on rocky coasts, which renders the supposition more probable. Some think it a phosphoric appearance arising from putrescent substances contained in the water, and observation seems to confirm the supposition. It is not improbable that the luminous appearance of the sea is sometimes caused by electricity, and sometimes by animal matter in a state of putrefaction. If the observations of certain voyagers can be depended on it is owing to both these causes. Dr. Priestley informed the writer of this article that some late observations prove incontestibly that the luminous appearance of the ocean, at certain times, is caused by a prodigious number of insects or animalcules floating in the water.

The ancients were ignorant of the cause of the constant and regular flux and reflux of the waters of the ocean; and the first person who gave a clear and satisfactory explanation of their cause was the famous Sir Isaac Newton.

The ocean covers about two thirds of the terraqueous globe, and is in continual motion, ebbing and flowing alternately without intermission, according to a general law. If the tide be at high water mark in any place which lies open to the ocean, it will soon subside, and flow regularly back for about six hours, when it will be at low water mark. It will again advance gradually for about six hours, and then returns in the same time to its former situation; so that the tide ebbs and flows alternately twice in the space of about twenty-four hours.

The interval between the flux and reflux of the ocean is not precisely six hours, but about six hours eleven minutes, so that the time of high water happens about three quarters of an hour later every day for about thirty days, when it recurs as before. If it be high water on any day at noon, it will be low

\* The light of the Sun is composed of rays of seven different colours.

water at eleven minutes past six in the evening, high water at twenty-two minutes past twelve, low water at thirty-three minutes past six in the morning, high water at forty-four minutes past noon; and so on for thirty days, when it will again be found to be high water at noon, the same as on the day when the observation was first made.

This uniform retardation of the tides answers exactly to the motion of the moon, which rises every day forty-four minutes later than on the preceding day, and, by moving in this manner round the earth, completes its revolution in about thirty days, and then rises again at the same times as in the last month. In like manner if it be high water at any place at three o'clock in the afternoon of the day of the new moon, it will be high water next day at forty-four minutes after three, on the third day at twenty-eight minutes past four; and so on till the next new moon, when it will again be high water exactly at three o'clock in the afternoon, the same as before.

The tides are so conformable to the motion of the moon that they must be ascribed to the moon's influence. However the moon is not the sole agent concerned in producing the tides. The sun also produces tides, but in a less degree.

Let M (figure 1) represent the moon, O the centre of the earth, A, B, C, D, different points upon its surface. Let us suppose the earth to be entirely covered by the ocean. Then, because a fluid obeys any force impressed upon it, the moon M acting upon the surface of the sea at the points A, B, C, D, will agitate the sea in those places, and draw the water toward it by its attractive power. But the point A being nearer the moon than C, the attraction at A will be greater than at C; and because the points B and D are at equal distances from the moon, the attraction at those points will be the same. At any other intermediate points the attractive forces will be different according to their different distances from the moon.

From this example it appears that the attractive force of the moon acting unequally upon different parts of the ocean must cause it to assume a different figure from what it would otherwise have if there were no such unequal attractions. And since this attractive force is greatest on that part of the ocean

which lies under the moon, the water will flow constantly from the adjacent parts of the ocean to that part, and will be elevated or depressed at different places according as the situation of the moon changes with respect to those places. But since the earth turns round on its axis from the moon to the moon again in twenty-four hours forty-four minutes, the flux and reflux of the sea will necessarily be retarded from day to day about forty-four minutes ; and this constant daily retardation of the tides is agreeable to experience.

The cause of high water at any place, when the moon is on the opposite side of the earth, may be explained as follows. Let *M* (figure 2) represent the moon, *O* the centre of the earth, *Z* and *N* those parts of the surface of the earth which are nearest to the moon and farthest from it. Let us suppose the earth to be entirely covered by the ocean. Then, because the point *Z* is nearer the moon than any other part of the hemisphere *H Z R*, it is evident that the water will be more strongly attracted by the moon about that point than at other points which are more remote. Now since this attraction acts in a direction contrary to the attraction of the earth, the water in all parts from *H R* to *Z*, must have its gravity, or tendency toward the centre *O* diminished ; and as the tendency toward the centre is least at the point *Z*, the water will be more elevated at *Z* than in any other part of the hemisphere *H Z R*.

In the opposite hemisphere *H N R*, the attraction of the moon conspires with that of the earth. But it is the property of attraction to decrease in proportion as the square of the distance between two bodies increases. Therefore the joint influence of the attractions of the moon and earth will be less at the point *N*, which is farthest from the moon, than at those parts which lie nearer *H R*. In consequence of this diminution of attraction at *N* the water will flow toward that point, and will be elevated there. Hence the attractive force of the moon will raise the water of the ocean both at that point of the earth's surface which is nearest to it, and at the opposite point which is farthest from it, at the same time, as was to be shown.



This case may be explained differently, as follows. We know that all bodies which move in curves, have a tendency to recede from their centres. Now, as the earth and moon move round their common centre of gravity, that part of the earth which is at any time farthest from the moon will have a greater centrifugal force than the side next the moon, and at the centre of the earth the centrifugal force exactly balances the attractive force. Therefore as much water tends to fly off, by the centrifugal force, on the side of the earth which is farthest from the moon, as is raised by the moon's attraction on the side next the moon. Hence the centrifugal force at N must be greater than at the centre O, and at O greater than at Z, because the point N is farther from the centre of motion than Z. On the contrary, the point Z being nearer the moon than the centre O, the attractive force must be strongest at Z, and weakest at N. And since the two opposing powers balance each other at the centre of the earth, the tides will rise as high on the side of the earth which is farthest from the moon, by the excess of the centrifugal force, as they rise on the side next the moon by the excess of the moon's attraction.

When the moon is on the meridian of any place, either above or below the horizon, its attraction will elevate the water at that place. But the water cannot be raised at one place without flowing from, and being depressed at another. The elevations and depressions of the water will be greatest at opposite points of the earth. When the moon raises the water at Z and N it will depress it at H and R; and when the moon raises the water at H and R it will depress it at Z and N. And because the moon passes over the meridian and is in the horizon twice every day, there will be two tides of flood and two of ebb every day at an interval of about six hours eleven minutes between flood and ebb, as we also know from experience.

The time of high water does not happen when the moon is on the meridian of a place, but commonly about three hours after it has passed the meridian. When the moon is on the meridian of any place it tends to raise the water at that place; but its attraction must be exerted some time before the great

est elevation will be produced. For if the moon's attraction were to cease when it had passed the meridian, the motion already communicated to the water would make it continue to rise for some time. Thus, the heat of the day is greater at two o'clock in the afternoon than at twelve, when the sun is on the meridian; and the weather is warmer in July and August than in June, when the days are longest.

We will now inquire what effect the sun has in producing tides.

The attraction of the sun is much greater than that of the moon; but the distance of the sun from the earth is nearly 400 times greater than that of the moon, therefore the forces with which the sun acts upon different parts of the earth will be much nearer equality than those of the moon, and consequently will have a less effect in producing any change of the figure of the earth. If all the parts of the earth were equally attracted they would suffer little change in their mutual situations.

That this subject may be clearly understood we must observe that the earth's diameter has a considerable proportion to the distance of the earth from the moon, but only a small proportion to the distance of the earth from the sun. Therefore the difference of the sun's attraction on the side of the earth nearer the sun and on the side more remote will be less than the difference of the moon's attraction on the side of the earth nearer the moon and on the side more remote; consequently the moon will raise the tides higher than the sun. It is computed that the moon's attraction on the sea is about four times as great as that of the sun; therefore the moon will raise the tides about four times as high as the sun. In reality there are two tides, a solar tide and a lunar tide, which have a joint or opposite effect according to the situation of the sun and moon. When the attractions of the sun and moon conspire together, as at the times of new and full moon, the flux and reflux are more considerable; but when the moon tends to elevate the water where the sun tends to depress it, as at the times of the first and third quarters of the moon, the flux and reflux will

be diminished. In the former case the tides are called spring tides, in the latter neap tides.

Let S (Figure 3) represent the sun, Z H N R the earth, F and C the moon at full and change. Then, because the sun S and the new moon C are in a line which nearly passes through the centre of the earth O, their attractions will conspire together, and raise the water about the zenith Z to a greater height than if only one of them acted singly. But it has been shown that when the water is elevated at the point Z it is also elevated at the opposite point N; and therefore in this situation of the sun and moon the tides will be augmented. Again, when the full moon F raises the water at N and Z; or at the least and greatest distance from it, the sun S, acting in the same right line, will also raise the water at the same points Z and N, or at the least and greatest distance from it; and therefore in this situation also the tides will be augmented. In both these cases the tides are called spring tides.

Let F and T (Figure 4) represent the moon in the first and third quarters; then, since the sun and moon act in the right lines S O and F T, which are nearly perpendicular to each other, their attractive forces will tend to produce contrary effects, because one raises the water where the other depresses it. The sun's attraction at R and H will diminish the effect of the moon's attraction at Z and N; so that the water will rise a little at the points which are at the least and greatest distance from the sun, and fall as much at the points which are at the least and greatest distance from the moon. The same effects will evidently be produced when the moon is in its third quarter at T. In both these cases the tides are called neap tides.

The effects of the attractive forces of the sun and moon depend likewise on their respective distances from the earth, as well as on their particular situations. For the less the distances are the greater will be the effects; therefore in winter, when the sun is nearer the earth, the spring tides will be greater than in summer, when the sun is farther from the earth, and the neap tides will be less. And for the same reason, as the moon moves round the earth in an elliptical orbit, and is nearer the earth at some times than at other, the tides will be greater in

the former case, and less in the latter. The declinations of the sun and moon, or their distances from the equator, have a remarkable influence on the tides. If the sun or moon were at one of the poles, it would elevate the water at both poles, and depress it at the equator: and if it were at the equator, it would elevate the water there, and depress it at the poles. The tides are highest at the time of the equinoxes, or when the sun and moon are at the equator, because the centrifugal force of the earth is greatest at the equator, and consequently the water will be impelled with greater velocity against the shores. As the sun and moon decline from the equator toward either pole the tides diminish, and are least at the solstices, or when the sun and moon are at the greatest distance from the equator.

When the moon declines from the equator toward either pole, the tides are alternately higher and lower at places having north or south latitudes, the tide which is under the moon being higher than the tide which is on the opposite side of the earth. The tides at equal distances on each side of the equator are equal, and at the equator any two successive tides are equal. These appearances of the tides will be illustrated by inclining the axis of a globe and turning the globe round.

This general and popular view of the tides is all that can be given here. The mathematical reader may consult Robison's *Mechanical Philosophy*, vol. i. where he will find the theory of the tides treated with perspicuity and ability.

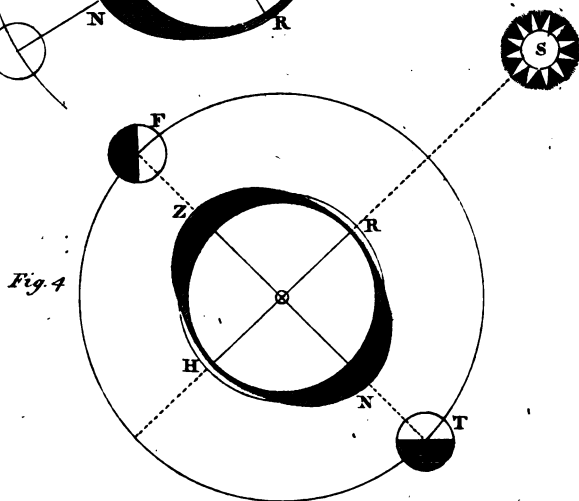
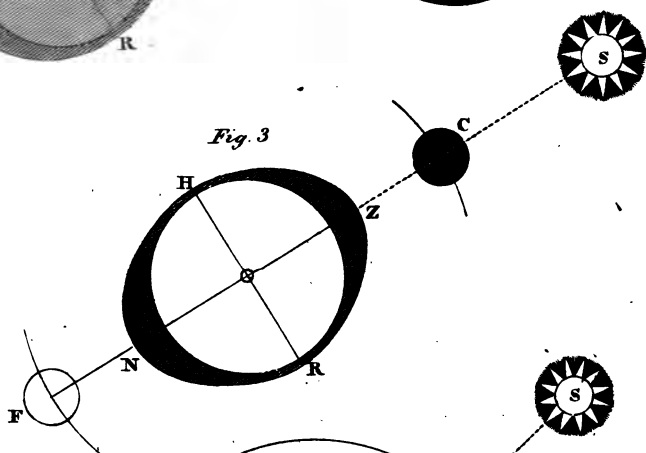
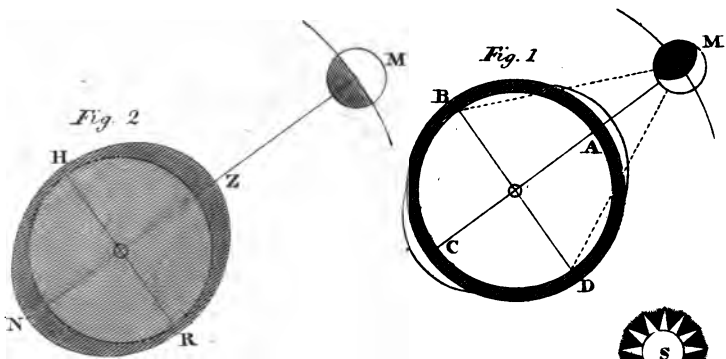
*Table of the Latitudes and Longitudes of many of the principal Towns on the Earth.*

THE following table is extracted from the geographical tables in Pinkerton's *Geography*, and the treatises of navigation of Robertson, Mackay, and Norie. The longitude is reckoned from the meridian of Greenwich, near London. The four tables from which this table is extracted generally differ in the minutes; and it is probable that the latitudes and longitudes of some of the towns have not yet been accurately determined.

Places.	Continents.	Countries.	Latitude.	Longitude.
Adrianople	Europe	Turkey	41° 3' N.	27° 10' E.
Aleppo	Asia	Turkey	35 45	37 20
Algiers	Africa	Algiers	36 49	2 13
Amsterdam	Europe	Holland	52 22	4 51
Antwerp	Europe	Netherlds.	51 13	4 23
Archangel	Europe	Russia	64 34	38 58
Astracan	Asia	Russia	46 21	48 8
Bagdad	Asia	Turkey	33 20	44 24
Baltimore	America	U. States	39 22	76 55 W.
Barcelona	Europe	Spain	41 23	2 11 E.
Bassora	Asia	Arabia	29 45	47 40
Batavia	Asia	Java	6 11 S.	106 52
Bergen	Europe	Norway	60 24 N.	5 20
Berlin	Europe	Germany	52 31	13 22
Birmingh.	Europe	Britain	52 30	1 50 W.
Boulogne	Europe	France	50 43	1 37 E.
Bologna	Europe	Italy	44 30	11 21
Boston	America	U. States	42 24	71 3 W.
Bourdeaux	Europe	France	44 50	0 35
Breslaw	Europe	Germany	51 3	17 9 E.
Brest	Europe	France	48 23	4 31 W.
Bristol	Europe	Britain	51 28	2 35
Brussels	Europe	Netherlds.	50 51	4 21 E.
Cadiz	Europe	Spain	36 31	6 12 W.
Cairo	Africa	Egypt	31 3	31 30 E.
Calcutta	Asia	India	22 35	88 28
Canton	Asia	China	23 7	113 12
Constantin.	Europe	Turkey	41 1	28 58
Charleston	America	U. States	32 50	80 15 W.
Copenhagen	Europe	Denmark	55 41	12 35 E.
Cork	Europe	Ireland	51 54	8 28 W.
Dantzic	Europe	Poland	54 22	18 34 E.
Dublin	Europe	Ireland	53 21	6 6 W.
Edinburgh	Europe	Britain	55 58	3 12
Florence	Europe	Italy	43 46	11 15 E.
Geneva	Europe	Switzerld.	46 12	6
Genoa	Europe	Italy	44 25	8 36
Gibraltar	Europe	Spain	36 5	5 22 W.
Glasgow	Europe	Britain	55 52	4 15
Goodhope	Africa	Caffres	33 56 S.	18 23 E.
Halifax	America	Nova Scot.	44 36 N.	63 29 W.
Hamburgh	Europe	Germany	53 33	9 56 E.
Ispahan	Asia	Persia	32 25	52 50

Places.	Continents.	Countries.	Latitude.	Longitude.
Leghorn	Europe	Italy	43° 33' N.	10° 16' E.
Leipsic	Europe	Germany	51 19	12 20
Lima	America	Peru	12 1 S.	76 49 W.
Lisbon	Europe	Portugal	38 42 N.	9 9
Liverpool	Europe	Britain	53 22	2 52
London	Europe	Britain	51 31	6
Lyons	Europe	France	45 46	4 49 E.
Madrass	Asia	India	13 5	80 29
Madrid	Europe	Spain	40 25	3 12 W.
Manchester	Europe	Britain	53 30	2 80
Marseilles	Europe	France	43 18	5 22 E.
Mecca	Asia	Arabia	21 36	40 5
Mexico	America	Mexico	19 54	99 42 W.
Milan	Europe	Italy	45 28	9 12 E.
Moscow	Europe	Russia	55 46	37 33
Munich	Europe	Germany	48 10	11 30
Nankin	Asia	China	32 5	118 47
Naples	Europe	Italy	40 51	14 18
Oporto	Europe	Portugal	41 10	8 27 W.
Oxford	Europe	Britain	54 46	1 15
Palermo	Europe	Sicily	38 7	13 20 E.
Paris	Europe	France	48 50	2 20
Petersburg	Europe	Russia	59 56	30 19
Philadelphia	America	U. States	39 57	75 8 W.
Portsmouth	Europe	Britain	50 47	1 6
Quebec	America	Canada	46 48	71 5
Rome	Europe	Italy	41 54	12 29 E.
Rotterdam	Europe	Holland	51 55	4 29
Rouen	Europe	France	49 26	1 5 W.
Seville	Europe	Spain	36 59	5 58
Smyrna	Asia	Turkey	38 28	27 20 E.
Stockholm	Europe	Sweden	59 21	18 4
Toulon	Europe	France	43 7	5 57
Toulouse	Europe	France	43 36	1 26
Tripoli	Africa	Barbary	32 54	13 21
Tunis	Africa	Barbary	36 32	10 34
Venice	Europe	Italy	45 26	12 11
Verona	Europe	Italy	45 26	11 24
Vienna	Europe	Germany	48 13	16 16
Warsaw	Europe	Poland	52 14	21
York (New)	America	U. States	40 41	74 11 W.

END OF APPENDIX.

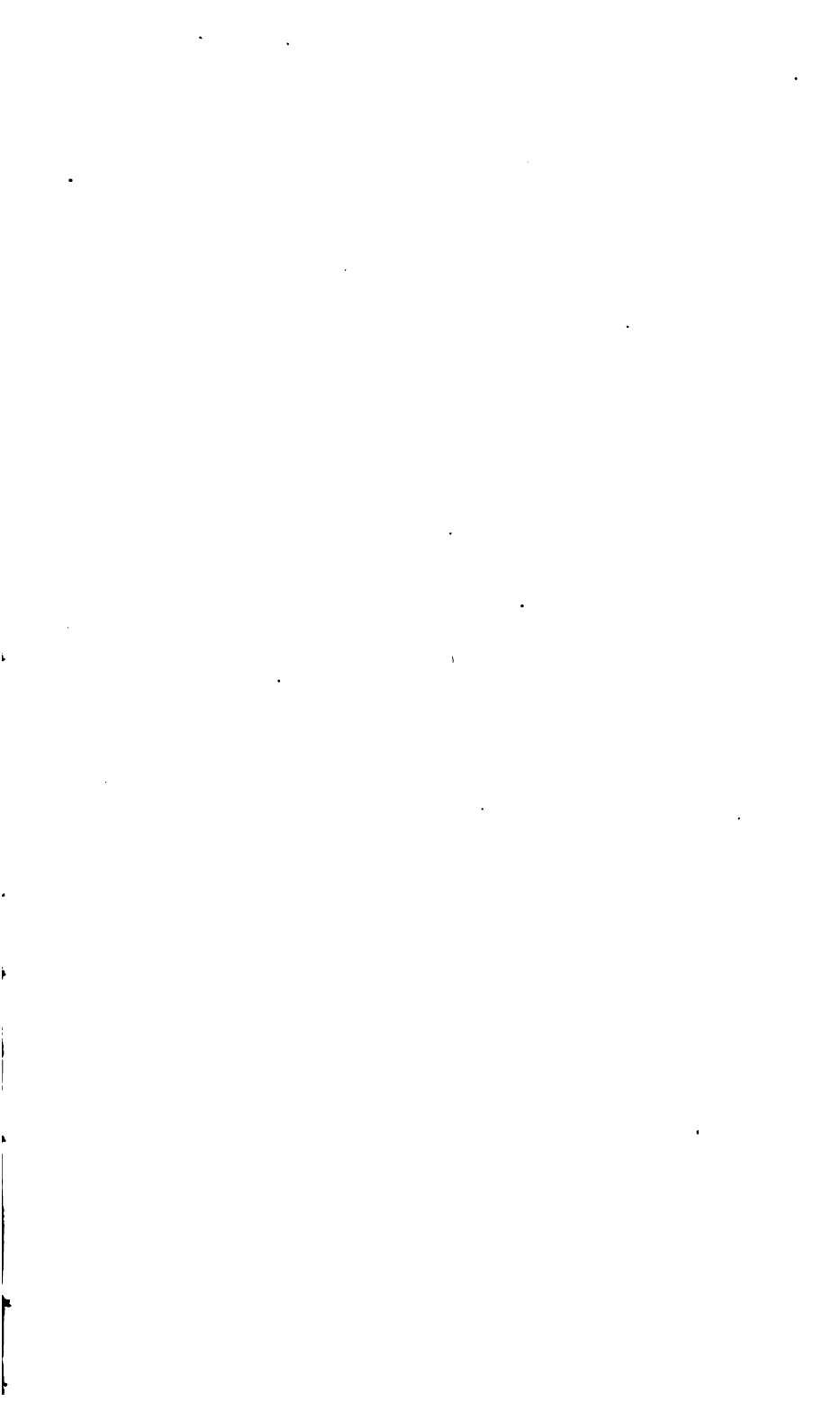


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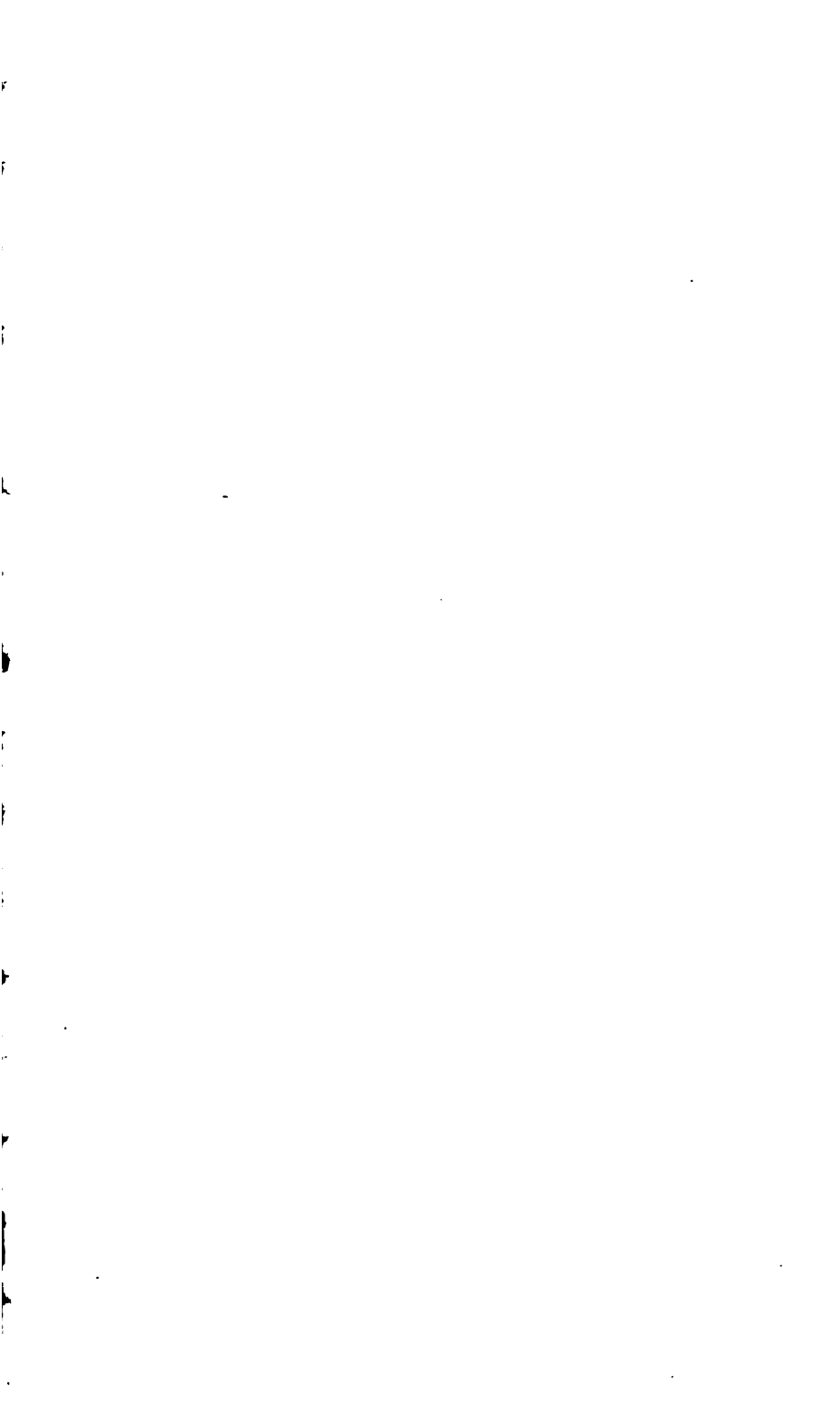
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